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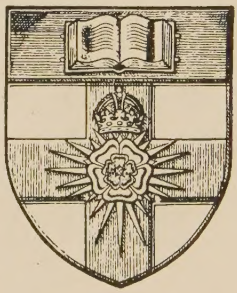

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THE

SURVEYORS' INSTITUTION

(*Incorporated by Royal Charter*),

12, GREAT GEORGE STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

TRANSACTIONS.

VOL. XLII.

SESSION 1909-1910.

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ERRATUM.

Page 334, line 19. "Cartel of defence" *should read* "Cartel of defiance."

The Surveyors' Institution

(Incorporated by Royal Charter),

12, GREAT GEORGE STREET,

WESTMINSTER, S.W.

OFFICERS, 1909-1910.

COUNCIL.

President.

Alexander Rose Stenning (London)

Vice-Presidents.

Leslie Robert Vigers (London)
William Edgar Horne, M.P. (London)
The Hon. Edward Gerald Strutt (London and Chelmsford)
John Farrer (Oulton, Leeds)

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William Edward Woolley (Loughborough)
Thomas Binnie (Glasgow)
Howard Chatfeild Clarke (London)
Edward Blakeway I'Anson (London)
John German (Ashby-de-la-Zouch)
George Francis Stewart (Killiney)
Frederick George Chinnock (London)
Robert Neville Holbeche (Birmingham)
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Arthur Lyon Ryde (London)
Henry Herbert Smith (Calne)
John Hubert Oakley (London)
Alfred Michelmore (Totnes)
Thomas Silk Wilson (Manchester)
John Henry Hanson (Huddersfield)

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Joseph Henry Sabin (London)
Charles Pell Hall (Woburn)

Associates of Council.

The Right Honourable Lord Alverstone, G.C.M.G. (Lord Chief Justice of England)
Sir John Wolfe Barry, K.C.B.

Past-Presidents (*Ex-officio Members of Council*).

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Daniel Watney (London)
Robert Vigers (London)
Thomas Miller Rickman (London)
Sir John F. L. Rolleston, M.P. (London)
Arthur Vernon (High Wycombe).
Herbert Thomas Steward (London)
Charles Bidwell (Ely)
George Langridge (Tunbridge Wells)
Thomas Taylor Wainwright (Liverpool)
Howard Martin (London)

Honorary Secretary.

Percivall Currey.

Secretary.

Alexander Goddard.

List of Standing Committees.

Composed of Members of Council and Provincial Chairmen.

BUILDING.
COUNCIL SELECTION.
COUNTY DISTRICTS AND COUNTRY MEETINGS.
DINNER.
EDUCATION.
ELECTIONS.
FINANCE.
FORESTRY.
LIBRARY AND SESSIONAL PAPERS.
PARLIAMENTARY BILLS AND GENERAL PURPOSES.
PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE.
QUANTITY SURVEYORS.

Past-Presidents.

1868 *John Clutton*
1870 *Richard Hall*
1872 *Edward Norton Clifton*
1874 *Thomas Huskinson*
1876 *Edmund James Smith*
1878 *William Sturge*
1880 *Edward Ryde*
1883 *Thomas Smith-Woolley*
1885 *Edward I'Anson*
1886 *William James Beadel, M.P.*
1888 ELIAS PITTS SQUAREY
1890 *Robert Collier Driver*
1892 *Charles John Shoppee*
1894 *Thomas Chatfeild Clarke*
1895 DANIEL WATNEY
1897 *Christopher Oakley*
1898 ROBERT VIGERS
1899 THOMAS MILLER RICKMAN
1900 *John Shaw*
1901 SIR JOHN F. L. ROLLESTON
1902 ARTHUR VERNON
1903 *Albert Buck*
1904 HERBERT THOMAS STEWARD
1905 CHARLES BIDWELL
1906 GEORGE LANGRIDGE
1907 THOMAS TAYLOR WAINWRIGHT
1908 HOWARD MARTIN

(The names of those deceased are printed in italics.)

The Surveyors' Institution

(Incorporated by Royal Charter)

Is established—

1. To secure the advancement and facilitate the acquisition of that knowledge which constitutes the profession of a Surveyor, viz.—the art of determining the value of all descriptions of landed and house property, and of the various interests therein; the practice of managing and developing estates; and the science of admeasuring and delineating the physical features of the earth, and of measuring and estimating artificers' work.
2. To promote the general interests of the profession, and to maintain and extend its usefulness for the public advantage.

The Institution was established in 1868, was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1881, and has a total membership of over 4,000.

The Institution consists of four classes, viz.—Fellows, Professional Associates, Associates, and Honorary Members, with a class of Students attached.

A Fellow must be more than twenty-five years of age, and must have held a responsible position for at least five years and have acquired practical knowledge of surveying in one or other of its branches as above defined. He must also have passed the Final Examination declared in the Rules of Examination to appertain to the class of Fellows, or certain Government Examination in the United Kingdom or the Colonies which the Council may declare to be equivalent thereto.* A Fellow has the right, conferred by the Charter, to use the letters F.S.I. after his name. A Fellow has also the right, under By-Laws allowed by H.M. Privy Council, to describe himself as "Chartered Surveyor."

* *The Council possess only a very limited dispensing power as regards the Examinations.*

A Professional Associate must be more than twenty-one years of age, a Surveyor by profession, in practice on his own account or employed as an Assistant in a Surveyor's Office, and qualified for the class by having passed the Intermediate Examination.* A Professional Associate has the right, conferred by the Charter, to use the letters P.A.S.I. after his name. A Professional Associate has also the right, under By-Laws allowed by H.M Privy Council to describe himself as "Professional Associate Chartered Surveyor."

An Associate must be more than twenty-one years of age, not a Surveyor by profession, but his pursuits must be such as to qualify him to concur with Surveyors in the advancement of professional knowledge.

An Honorary Member must be a person who, either by reason of his position or experience, or his eminence in science, may be enabled to render assistance in promoting the objects of The Institution, but who is not engaged in practice as a Surveyor in Great Britain or Ireland. He has the privilege of being present and taking part at all Ordinary General Meetings, and of access to the Library, but no right of voting, discussing, or otherwise interfering in the affairs of The Institution; nor is he called on to contribute to its funds.

Students (who must not be under eighteen years of age) qualify as such by passing the Preliminary Examination. A candidate for Studentship who can produce a Certificate of having passed the Matriculation Examination of the University of Oxford, Cambridge, London, or any other University in the United Kingdom, or who has passed, with Honours, the Senior Local Examination of the University of Oxford or Cambridge, or who has obtained a Higher Certificate at the Examinations of the Oxford and Cambridge School's Examinations Board, or who has passed the Examination qualifying for the Studentship of the Institution of Civil Engineers, or the Preliminary Examination of the Institute of Chartered Accountants, the Royal Institute of British Architects, the Incorporated Law Society, is ex-

* Note.—*After October*, 1913, *Professional Associates will be required to qualify for the Class by passing both the Intermediate and Final Examinations.*

empted from this Examination, and may be admitted by the Council on the recommendation (according to a form) of a Member and the Surveyor to whom he is articled ; but it is obligatory on all Students to undergo the Intermediate Examination under the conditions applying in each particular case under the Rules of Examination.

The Council may accord to Students such privileges, subject to such terms, regulations and restrictions as they shall from time to time prescribe.

Any person desirous of being admitted into The Institution (excepting to the class of Students) must be proposed and recommended according to a form, in which the full name, place of business (if any), usual residence, and qualifications of the candidate must be distinctly specified. This form must be subscribed by him, and signed by at least six Fellows or four Fellows and two Associates, certifying a personal knowledge of the candidate; or by four Members of the Council, of whom the President shall be one, after careful inquiry into the antecedents of the applicant.

The proposal so made, being delivered to the Secretary, will be submitted to the Council, who, on approving the qualifications, will determine the class for which the candidate is to be presented for ballot.

The following are the rates of contribution to the funds:—

	Annual Subscription. £ s. d.	Admission Fee. £ s. d.
Student . . .	1 1 0	—
Associate . . .	2 2 0	3 3 0
Professional Associate	2 2 0	3 3 0
Fellow . . .	3 3 0	5 5 0

No person can become a Member (other than an Honorary Member) of The Institution, unless and until he pays as his first Subscription to The Institution, in the case of becoming a Fellow of The Institution, the sum of Eight Guineas, in the case of becoming a Professional Associate of The Institution, the sum of Five Guineas, and in the case of becoming an Associate of The Institution, the sum of Five Guineas.

All Fellows, Professional Associates, and Associates are required, within twelve months after their election, to deliver

to the Council an original Paper on some subject connected with the profession, or to make a donation to the Library.

The affairs of The Institution are under the management of a Council, which is elected annually, consisting of a President, four Vice-Presidents, sixteen Fellows, two Professional Associates, and two Associates.

The Session of The Institution commences annually on the second Monday in November, and continues to the end of May. The Ordinary General Meetings are, as far as possible, held on every alternate Monday during the Session. At these Meetings original communications are read on professional subjects, and their merits fully and freely discussed. Every Member has the privilege of introducing one visitor to these Meetings. Members are entitled to a copy of any printed publication issued by The Institution after their admission.

Paper 358. }
No. 546. }

THE OPENING ADDRESS

BY

ALEXANDER ROSE STENNING (President),

AT THE ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING OF

THE SURVEYORS' INSTITUTION,

November 8th, 1909.

Presentation of the Gold Medal to John George Head (Fellow).

The President said his first duty that evening was a very pleasing one; it was the presentation of the Gold Medal for the Session 1908-9 to Mr. J. G. Head for his Paper on "Giant London," read at the Meeting of March 8th, 1909. He was sure they would all agree with him that the Paper which Mr. Head had put before them was most interesting, and gave them information about the growth of London in size and value in a very readable way. His researches must have taken a great deal of time, and he had put the result of his labours in a very attractive form. The Council were delighted when they found they must award the medal to the reader of so enjoyable a Paper.

Again, he thought he might mention that Mr. Head's son had been successful in obtaining the first Institution Scholarship at Cambridge University, and had since taken a very excellent place in the Natural Science

Tripos. He had a good father before him, and he could not do better than follow in his steps.

He had very great pleasure in handing Mr. Head the Gold Medal.

Mr. J. G. HEAD in reply said it was difficult for him to express his gratification on receiving the medal, because he never dreamt that his Paper would meet with so high an honour, and even while returning them his most sincere thanks, he could not but feel that much of the success which had attended it was due to his having been fortunate enough to select so interesting a subject, to its having been delivered at a time when the problems of London were close to the minds of all, and above all because it was delivered under the important ægis of The Surveyors' Institution.

There was much more pleasure than trouble in the preparation of the Paper, and their reception of it, while occasioning him some little surprise, had been most gratifying; to that gratification they had that evening set the seal by presenting him with the very handsome token which he should treasure exceedingly, not only for its own sake, but because it stood for that which he valued most highly—the approval of The Surveyors' Institution, a body to which he considered it an honour to belong.

He thanked the President for his kindly reference to his son, and he was sure that he would highly appreciate his remarks.

THE PRESIDENT then delivered his Opening Address, as follows:—

My first and obvious duty on taking this Presidential Chair is to thank the Members of The Institution most

sincerely for the great honour they have conferred upon me. I earnestly hope that, with the assistance of my colleagues on the Council and of the Staff, I may so fulfil the duties of my office as to maintain its dignities and high traditions unimpaired.

I must preface my address with an expression of sorrow, in which I am confident all will join, at the loss which we have sustained during the recess by the death of our dear old friend Mr. John Wornham Penfold, to whom The Institution owes so much. As Honorary Secretary during its early years, and later as Vice-President—a position which only advancing years obliged him to relinquish—he did much to place us where we stand to-day, and I am glad to say that our late Secretary, Mr. Julian Rogers, has kindly promised to tell us more of those services by reading a Paper this Session on "The History and Development of The "Institution."

A man of absolute integrity and most kindly nature, Mr. Penfold was ever ready, though of a naturally retiring disposition, to place at the service of his fellow Members his ripe experience and sound judgment. The important positions he held as member of the Tribunal of Appeal, and as adviser to the Office of Works, the Post Office, the Charity Commissioners, and other prominent bodies, testified to his standing in the profession, and his services as arbitrator were in frequent request. By his genial and courteous manner he endeared himself to all with whom he was brought in contact, and a great many of us feel that we have lost not only a valued colleague but a dear and kind friend.

The Penfold Gold and Silver Medals, which he founded in his lifetime, and the handsome legacy of £500 which he has left to The Institution, will keep

his memory green among the younger members of the profession; while by the further legacy of £500 to the Benevolent Fund he has continued an example of kindly generosity to the less successful members of our profession, which I trust will be a stimulus and example to us all.

I am pleased to be able to record that The Institution continues to grow in numbers and in public estimation. Only recently its authority has received special recognition in Parliament by the association in the Finance Bill of its President with the Lord Chief Justice and the Master of the Rolls as the Committee to draw up the panel of referees and the rules for regulating the procedure of appeal under the Land Clauses.

It is satisfactory to note that The Institution examinations have also received official recognition, for in a recent advertisement, which gave rise to some comment, the appointments were limited to men qualified as Fellows of The Institution, not, I believe, because it was thought that Members of The Institution must necessarily be more experienced than other professional men, but because by the Treasury rule Civil Servants are required to have passed a suitable examination, and that of The Institution was accepted by the Civil Service Commissioners as fulfilling this requirement.

Before leaving this part of my Paper, I should like to say one word about the Junior Meetings, which, as you know, were established to enable the younger Members of The Institution to meet together for the reading and discussion of Papers on professional subjects. While I have been a Member of the Council I have on several occasions taken the chair at these meetings, and I am therefore, I think, in a position to testify to the time and energy which have been given to their arrangement

by the responsible Committee and to the really valuable educational effect they have had.

While on the subject of Junior Members, perhaps I might be forgiven for expressing a hope that at the present time when the Territorial Army is rising from the ashes of the Volunteers, our profession may not be behind others in making the movement a success. Employers, I am sure, will give the necessary time, the men themselves will benefit both morally and physically by the drill and discipline, and the country will gain by their service.

With these introductory remarks I will attempt to place before you a few thoughts concerning the present position and possible developments in connection with landed interests, which have passed through my mind when comtemplating the duty of addressing you which has devolved upon me to-night.

Under whatever Government we groan or prosper, whether trade is good or bad, whether Suffragettes rise or Consols fall, there is one subject which is of interest to all the world, because all live by it, and all must one day go back to it—I mean the land. We, as a profession, are even more closely interested than some other classes, who, though just as dependent on it in the long run, are not day by day forced to consider it and deal with it, and our interest cannot fail to have been quickened by the legislative proposals now under consideration. It is neither my function nor my intention this evening to consider those proposals from a political point of view, but I shall have something presently to say of their probable effect on the development of the land. This concerns us intimately. A wise policy of development means prosperity to our profession, while whatever

checks and hinders such development must *ipso facto* have an equally adverse effect upon us.

Land presents itself under very different aspects to different classes. The farmer's chief concern is with its various constituent elements, but the builder cares not at all whether nitrogen or phosphates of lime predominate in the soil. For him land is simply so much surface to be covered, well or ill, as the building regulations of the local authority permit, or his clients' tastes demand. For our present rulers on the other hand, land is merely a taxable commodity whose chief virtue resides in its immobility—in its being a possession which cannot be concealed, and which cannot be transferred to happier countries where taxation of unearned increment is unknown.

But the surveyor's interest in land is different again from all these. He is concerned, according to the branch of the profession to which he belongs, in its management, sale, valuation or development, and I propose to deal with the two main uses to which it can be put, viz., as the source of our nutriment or the site for our houses.

For the purposes of my Paper, then, I may divide land into the two classes of "food land" and "dwelling land." A third heading will no doubt occur to some of you, *i.e.*, sporting or pleasure land. But apart from Scotch deer forests or Yorkshire grouse moors, not much of the land of this country is devoted solely to such purposes, and what is so used can rarely be used for anything else, and therefore seldom comes under the practical consideration of our Members. So far as land which is primarily used for other purposes is subject to sporting rights, the matter was so admirably and fully dealt with by

Mr. Martin in his Presidential Address last Session that I need only touch on it very lightly in passing. As Mr. Martin so well pointed out, hunting and shooting are not the recreations of one class only, enjoyed at the expense of and causing serious loss and discomfort to another, as the town-bred demagogue would have us believe. The prosperity of the country districts depends not only on their power of production, but on the facilities for marketing their products profitably, and many a remote country village would be unable to maintain even its present scanty population if it were not for the half-dozen houses which are inhabited almost solely for sporting purposes, and which absorb a very considerable proportion of the meat, bread, milk, and eggs produced in the district; while at the same time the requirements of the sports themselves provide a living for many thousands who must otherwise go to swell the competing crowds in the towns.

I propose this evening to consider some of the factors on which the value of land for the production of food or the erection of dwellings depends, and some of the consequences which follow upon its conversion from food land into dwelling land.

Before any valuation of a given area can be made, it is necessary to know under what liabilities of service, rent, or length of occupation it is held, and for what purposes it is available.

In the days of feudal tenure land was granted by the sovereign to his tenants-in-chief, and by them again to the lesser tenants, on conditions of military or personal service; and tenants of the manor by copyhold paid their lords in labour, or by a share of the products of the land so held by them. No man then, in theory at all events, enjoyed absolute ownership of land, except

the King; though when the overlord was weak and the tenant was strong, these theoretical obligations sat lightly on those who were nominally subject to them. With the gradual cessation of external aggression and internal warfare, and with the growth of civil freedom, the obligation of military service to the sovereign passed into oblivion, and the overlord, no longer called upon to place armed men into the field when his suzerain demanded it, preferred to receive his payment in the form of rent.

At the present time a great and growing school of would-be reformers are raising the contention that no man can have a right to hold any land as a private possession, but that, as in the old feudal days all land was deemed to belong to the sovereign, so now all land belongs to the State, or to the sovereign people who have succeeded in gradually wresting from the Crown so large a proportion of the rights and powers it once enjoyed.

Apart from any question as to the manner in which the State is to obtain possession of the land now in private hands, I for one do not believe that such State ownership would be for the good of the community. It may be admitted that a small minority of owners use their powers harshly, and that there are some incidents of private ownership which work injustice and hardship both to individuals and to communities. But these can and ought to be alleviated by judicious legislation without subverting the social system. It has been well said that Socialism would only be successful if all men could be changed into archangels—and then it would not be necessary. The experience of those countries where the primitive tribal or communal ownership of land has subsisted to the present day—Italy, Russia, India—does not encourage us to believe that any real advance in

material welfare is possible under such systems at all comparable with that which we have achieved under the individualistic system, with all its faults.

Moreover, the present tenure of land in this country is the outcome of generations of social advance, and is buttressed by the growth of the traditions of centuries. By whatever mode possession was obtained in the distant past, and however wrongly the claims of the State were set aside by the original possessors, it cannot be denied that the present owners, in all but an infinitesimally small number of cases, paid in full for what they now enjoy. Confiscation by the State would be a crime, and purchase a gigantic folly. It may well be that the duties imposed upon holders of land in feudal times, ought, transmuted into terms of modern necessity, still to attach to ownership of land. Such obligations, willingly and amply fulfilled by good landlords have to some extent been provided for in recent years by Parliament in measures such as the Agricultural Holdings Acts, the Small Holdings Acts, the Housing, Town Planning Bill, and others.

Some schools of thought, however, go much further, but even if the visionary and impracticable schemes of the Socialists are not likely to materialise in the near future—a danger which, though remote, cannot be altogether omitted from his calculations—the surveyor in considering values has even to-day to take into account the ever-growing burdens imposed upon the landowner by the local authorities in the form of rates. He must also consider what limitations of user exist in the shape of easements, what are the means of access to the market if agricultural land is in question, or to the centres of population if the land is to be used for the erection of dwelling houses or business premises. Nor

must he forget the rapidly-growing motor traffic which, while in one case it may offer valuable facilities for business purposes or improve the means of access, in another is rapidly destroying the amenities of what was once agreeable and secluded residential property.

But all these are simple subtractions which have to be made from the possible value after it has been determined whether it is more suitable for food production or for the erection of buildings.

The value of food land must depend primarily upon what can be got out of it, and secondly upon what opportunity there may be of marketing the produce. A long deceased but well remembered sporting worthy crystallised his experience of horseflesh in the saying that half the goodness of a horse goes into him through his mouth. In like manner the value of the crops depends to a great extent on what is put into the land. The prairie land of the United States, Canada, Siberia, or Australia will often give continuously over a number of years a yield of twenty bushels of wheat to the acre without the addition of a single load of manure or other fertiliser. This sounds a poor return when compared with the average of thirty bushels produced in this country. But it must not be forgotten that, as is shown by the Rothamsted experiments, the productive capacity of the soil of this country, when unaided by agricultural science under the system of high farming, is limited for good average land to a yield of some thirteen bushels per acre. So that the prairie value of British land when put into competition with the far richer virgin soil of the countries I have named, is small.

Improved methods of transit have brought more and more distant areas of corn-growing lands into competition with our own, and this, coinciding with some bad

seasons in the seventies, brought down the value of agricultural land in Great Britain with a run. The farmer had to adapt himself to the new circumstances, and, although we are perhaps inclined sometimes to smile at his methods, the agricultural returns for the last forty years speak eloquently as to the way he has done so.

	1868	1878	1888	1898	1908
Corn Crops,	acres.	acres.	acres.	acres.	acres
Wheat		3,218,417	2,564,237	2,102,206	1,626,733
Barley	*9,433,532	2,469,652	2,085,561	1,903,666	1,667,437
Oats		2,698,907	2,882,252	2,917,760	3,108,918
Horses (agricultural) -	numbers. Not given	numbers. 1,412,502	numbers. 1,420,350	numbers. 1,517,160	numbers. 1,545,671
Cattle - -	5,423,981	5,738,128	6,129,375	6,622,364	6,905,134
Sheep - -	30,711,396	28,406,206	25,257,149	26,743,194	27,119,730
Pigs - -	2,308,539	2,483,248	2,404,344	2,451,595	2,823,482

* Not divided, but including Rye, Beans, and Peas.

It is true that in 30 years the area under wheat has been halved, while that under barley has diminished by one-third, but in the same period, in spite of the many thousand acres which have been eaten up by bricks and mortar or other agencies, the live stock on our farms have almost universally increased in numbers. Sheep, which are largely dependent upon arable land, have it is true diminished, but cattle, horses, and pigs all show substantial increases, the former being now 1½ million head in excess of 1868. In the same period the population of Great Britain has grown from 25 millions to 56 millions, a rate of growth with which the food produced in our small islands could not hope to keep pace,

but the figures show that our present race of farmers are not behind their fathers, although they supply us with milk and meat instead of with bread.

Mr. Bidwell in his Presidential Address in 1905 stated that, on the basis of the calculations of Sir Robert Giffen and Lord Milner referred to in the Report of the Royal Commission on Agricultural Depression, he estimated that the capital value of agricultural land assessed to Schedule A of the income tax had depreciated in value by nearly 900 millions sterling in 30 years, and hazarded an opinion that the bottom had then been touched. Recent Inland Revenue returns seem to confirm this view, and in spite of this year's harvest difficulties, there is reason to believe that, in the absence of outside disturbing influences, the agricultural industry may regain its balance.

A factor which bears intimately upon the value of land, and which is often overlooked by those who hold the doctrine that the land belongs to the people, is that of the improvements which have from time to time been effected upon and actually incorporated with the land. Even if any justification can be said to exist for the socialistic doctrine, no one can contend with the smallest show of reason that the improvements in or upon it belong to any but those who have made them or their successors in title.

"In an interesting article in the *Journal* of the Royal "Agricultural Society, on the 'Making of England,' "Mr. Albert Pell has shown," says Lord Eversley, "that "on three large typical estates in different parts of "England the expenditure on improvements of various "kinds within the last fifty or one hundred years has "been of such an amount that the interest on it at 4 per "cent. would exceed the net rental derived by the land-

" owners from the properties, and that the landowners " would have been far richer men if, instead of improving " their estates, they and their predecessors had invested " this money in Consols, and had allowed their land to " remain in its original condition. On one of these " estates in Norfolk the expenditure in improvement, " from 1776 to 1841, was £536,000, and the gross rent " at the end of that period was £52,000 a year; the " net rent, after payment of taxes, tithe, maintenance, " and management, being no more than £30,000. " Between 1842 and 1887 (the date of the article) the " owner had expended a further £490,000 in improve- " ments on the property, but his net rent had been " reduced to a little over £25,000, which is not more " than 2½ per cent. on the outlay of the preceding " 100 years."

To come to more modern times all are aware that the present Chancellor of the Exchequer has recognised the injustice of assessing owners of land under Schedule A for income tax purposes, while commercial enterprises are assessed under Schedule D. The small concession he made was due in part to actual returns from estates placed before him by The Surveyors' Institution, which showed that the annual cost of upkeep to preserve estates in a condition to maintain their present rents averaged 27½ per cent. of the gross rents.

The capital expended upon food land, therefore, together with the annual cost of its maintenance, leaves little balance of value to be attributed to its original prairie or forest value.

I cannot leave this part of my subject without some reference to the all-pervading subject of small holdings, the development of which must have some influence not only on the value of rural land, but upon our supply

of home-grown food. The figures I have just quoted show the futility in many cases of the cry "Back "to the land" under present conditions. Until the labourer has been taught how to get a weekly return of more than 18*s.* out of his holding, or a great rise in prices has taken place, his position will be worsened and not bettered if he is induced to try, except under very favourable conditions, to make a living for himself and his family out of a small holding, and to depend solely upon what he can produce by his own efforts. Even if he is willing to take the risks his greatest need is not cheap land but cheap capital.

To turn even a small area of land into an economic holding a considerable expenditure is necessary upon buildings of all kinds, drainage, manure, fencing, &c., not to mention stock.

An accessible market and an easy means of placing his produce on that market are other prime needs of the small holder. The small man has only small quantities to sell at a time, and has not as a rule either horse or cart to carry his produce to the town. One of the most enlightened statesmen of our time, Sir Horace Plunkett, has shown in Ireland the true solution of the difficulties of the small agriculturist. By a judicious system of co-operation he has enabled the possessor of a single cow to obtain as good a price for his milk as the owner of one hundred, and I can see no reason why the Saxon should not find such a system as profitable as his more quick-witted but frequently less persistent neighbour in Ireland. The interest at present evoked by the subject seems to point to the fact that England is at length waking up to a realisation that a neglect of the possibilities of our soil is an evil, leading not only to loss of national income, but to an even greater loss in the

national health and vigour owing to the majority of the population being huddled together in our towns.

Even in the country I consider that no dwelling should be allowed to be erected without a minimum of at least ⅛ acre of garden. Allotment gardens are better than nothing, but when they lie, as is not unfrequently the case, half a mile away from a man's door, it is impossible for him to derive full benefit from his holding, and I cannot doubt that this reform would also be to the profit of his employer.

The establishment of a system of land banks assisted by public credit, to provide the small holder with the capital necessary for his business at a moderate rate of interest, might go far towards putting him in a position to command success. The movement, however, should not be unduly forced, and must be accompanied by suitable education in the rural primary schools, with special attention to such subjects as nature study and school gardens.

The advance towards a more useful system of education in the rural schools which has been made in the more recent codes must be continued and greater latitude given in the choice of subjects, different localities being offered an opportunity of selecting those subjects of study most suited to their needs. It is being gradually recognised that education consists not in the absorption of facts which bear no relation to the life that the pupil will be called upon to lead, but in the development of his natural powers by means of those studies which will enable him to do his daily work better; and we may hope that before another generation has passed a direct road from the labourer's cottage to the farm-house may have been provided to counteract the more garish attractions of the town.

And here may I venture to suggest to those of our profession who act as land agents the possibility of establishing schemes to enable the thrifty labourer to insure for himself a better provision for his old age than the State 5*s.* a week.

For good or for evil, however, England has been transformed from an agricultural into an industrial nation. The numbers employed in agricultural pursuits are given in the census of 1861 as 2,010,454; while in the census of 1901 that number had dwindled to 1,071,040. And, as already stated, the capital value of agricultural land has depreciated by about 900 millions sterling in 30 years. It is well when we boast of England's industrial wealth to remember this tremendous set-off.

But in spite of all neglect, misfortune, and injury, agriculture is still one of our greatest industries. It ranks second only in the census of 1901 to the great iron and steel trade; and if the money, which under the Development Bill it is proposed to devote to the development of agriculture and forestry and to the improvement of communications, is wisely expended, it should be possible for a far larger proportion of our people to find profitable occupation on the land, in providing a considerable share of the meat, poultry, eggs, and fruit, which we now import in ever increasing quantities from our neighbours over sea, even from so far off as distant Siberia.

When we turn to consider the value of dwelling land, we find that the same principles apply, though under widely different conditions. Dwelling land, like food land, derives its value from what can be got out of it, but here the crop takes the form of rent, and that crop will vary largely with the amount which has first been put into the land. It is true that the bare site commands

a yearly rent, varying enormously in accordance with the situation of the land and its nearness to the great industrial centres, but in the vast majority of cases the proportion of the rent of a dwelling which is due to the land on which it stands is relatively very small. And in addition to the mere cost of erection, the builder has to incur further expense in the making of roads, the laying of sewers, and in the satisfaction of other demands of the local authorities. These costs may vary considerably in different localities and for different classes of houses, but the principle remains true that before much can be got out of the land, a great deal has to be put into it.

The system of building leases, which plays so large a part in the development of building land in this country, has been hotly denounced by that school of reformers who seem to believe that the experience of the past is worth nothing, and that the only way to cure diseases is to kill the patient. That at the end of a long period, it may be 60 or 100 years, the owner of the land should become by agreement the owner also of the buildings upon it, is described by them as rank robbery. But I think we shall all agree that unless and until the whole element of speculation is eradicated from all business, when few of us will care to indulge in it, the reversion of the buildings to the owner of the land is a rational and fair condition of leasehold tenure. The freeholder agrees to forego for a long period any chance of appreciation in the value of the site, and accepts a rent, well secured it is true, but small and in no way commensurate with the value which the land will probably reach after a few years. If such additional value does accrue to the land, the profit is taken during the whole currency of the lease by the original lessee or his successors in title, and till its termination the freeholder has no share

in that profit. He is content to exchange his chances of immediate gain for the possible accrual to his children or his estate of a considerable future profit.

On the other hand, the leaseholder is enabled for a small fixed payment to exercise for a long period all rights of ownership over his plot of ground. Instead of sinking a large sum in the mere purchase of the site, he has full use of his capital for as long a period as he is likely to want it himself. It will not in my opinion be to the advantage of the community if the owner is to be deprived of this future bonus. If the leasehold system is to continue he will naturally demand a rent in excess of what he is now willing to take, and the occupier's position will be worsened rather than improved.

To meet the attack upon the leasehold system, which is based upon hearsay, I do not think I need do more than quote from the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Town Holdings, which is based upon the best evidence obtainable throughout the whole country. The Report states "The Committee agree with "the opinion that the plan of letting land for building "upon an annual rent, which is a leading feature of the "leasehold system, possesses considerable advantage and "convenience; and they have, on the whole, come to the "conclusion that, except in places where the sentiment "of the district is strongly opposed to leaseholds, houses "are built and building estates are developed more rapidly "on the leasehold system than on that of freehold pur-"chase, and that in consequence of the large supply of "houses thus caused, occupiers obtain the benefits of "lower rents and greater opportunities of selection."

Now, whether he owns the land or merely holds it on building lease, it is plain that the man who provides the community with dwellings—and the normal increase of

population alone means a demand in this country for some 50,000 more dwellings a year—has to take big risks and incur heavy expenditure before he can get any return. He has to put into the land not only his money, but his time, his skill in gauging public needs and public taste, and his business capacity in directing a highly risky enterprise. The speculative builder has long been a butt for easy jokes, yet he is a very necessary wheel in the social machine. Next to food and clothing man's chiefest need is a shelter overhead, and the great army which provides for this elementary want ranks next in point of numbers to the metal workers and the tillers of soil. In the census of 1901 the total number of males above 10 years of age is estimated at 12,134,259, and the numbers of those employed in our chief industries are given as follows :—

Iron and Steel.	Agriculture.	Building.	Mining.	Textiles.
1,174,180	1,071,040	1,042,864	800,179	492,175

Thus we see that one-twelfth of the total male working population of these islands is employed in this industry, whose raw material, land, the present Government thinks it just to tax so heavily.

Because some owners are fortunate enough to find their land increasing in value year by year without any labour on their part—though others find the value diminish in spite of every exertion they can put forth—therefore every owner is to have taken from him one-fifth of any profit which may accrue to him on the land he develops, though no allowance is to be made for any losses he may incur. He engages in a trade which is of great and vital importance to the community, and in which the risks are great and the profits unpleasantly variable. But the man who takes great hazards, including the risk of landing himself in the

Bankruptcy Court, expects, and rightly, to have at least the chance of substantial reward. If so large a share of his profits are to be claimed by the State he must, to protect himself, raise his terms, so that the ultimate effect of the tax will be to make houses more costly.

The immediate result of the Budget proposals has been to strike dismay into these men, accustomed though they are to considerable risks. Unable to foresee or calculate the whole of the risks they must run, they have chosen rather to lie idle, with the unhappy result that the whole building trade is paralysed, and many thousands have been thrown out of work. The borough surveyors of six important and representative towns have been good enough to furnish me with figures showing the houses built within the boundaries of those boroughs during recent years, and the approximate number of acres so absorbed by bricks and mortar.

	1906.		1907.		1908.	
	Houses.	Acres.	Houses.	Acres.	Houses.	Acres.
Brighton -	304	14	189	8	148	7
Bristol - -	1239	100	879	75	454	38
Coventry -	728	20	1275	35	1084	30
Leicester -	648	21	411	14	371	12
Liverpool -	2453	105	2342	100	1850	75
Manchester -	2500	100	2634	105	2210	88

Although the figures of the present year are not available for purposes of comparison, those given bear testimony to the diminution of employment and the check to enterprise in the building trade which has occurred during the past year or two, and which must to some extent be attributed to the feeling of insecurity which has existed.

It is contended by one school of Sociologists, though I cannot for one moment accept the contention myself, that it would be for the benefit of all if the State were the sole owner of land, and if all increment in value due to the combined efforts or to the necessities of the community, were to go into the common stock and be shared by all. But it is a necessary corollary, as it seems to me, that the community must share the losses also; the common fund must make good all decrement due to the changes of habit or fashion of the community or its requirements in respect of new routes and modes of transport, and I believe that if a true balance were struck, the resulting gain would be found to be trifling. Incidentally one may suggest that if no man is to receive any profit out of land which he has not created by his own exertions, it is to be presumed that shareholders in banks and railways will be equally ready to give up the increased capital value of their stock, towards which they have not contributed as a rule even so much as a criticism at the annual meeting. But whatever one's personal opinion may be, it is not the purpose of this Paper to consider the respective merits of rival economic theories, and whether the individualistic principle is destined to be swallowed up by communistic doctrines or not. In any case the conversion of food land into dwelling land must go on as the necessities of population demand. But whether the proposals of the Budget are likely to affect such conversion in a way to benefit the community is quite another matter.

The land-taxers say that the tax on undeveloped land will force into the market a good deal of land which is now held up to the detriment of the community; and they maintain that building land is limited in quantity and the scarcity is artificially aggravated by those who have a monopoly of it. Now in the first place I believe

this assertion to be untrue, and in the second, even if it could be substantiated, I do not think the remedy proposed is the right one. It is absurd to say that building land is limited in quantity while in every county there are thousands of owners willing, nay, even anxious to sell. What is meant by the assertion is that certain owners on the outskirts of great centres of population are not willing to sell except at higher prices than are at present offered to them, and that some people are eager to obtain particular plots, which seem to them specially eligible, at less than the present market price.

Even if here and there plots of land in thickly populated parts are withheld by their owners from the building market, it by no means follows that the community incurs any loss thereby. The more closely any district is built upon, the more desirable it is in the interests of health and sanitation that as many open spaces as possible shall be maintained, and the longer the owners of such plots keep them open the better it is in nearly all cases for the neighbourhood.

The theory which appears to lie behind these proposed taxes that every bit of land which might be built on and is not, is so much dead loss, is a fantastic folly. As well say that a street of houses three stories high is undeveloped because they might be six stories high.

On the 16th August last, Mr. John Burns in the House of Commons gave the following return of empty houses and tenements:—

*London . .	43,538	Manchester .	9,928
Birmingham .	8,461	Portsmouth .	1,652
Bristol . .	4,850	Sheffield . .	4,907
Leeds . .	6,875	Glasgow . .	17,000
Liverpool .	6,900		

* The number of empty houses in Southwark and Wandsworth are not included in the above figures for London.

making a total in London and these eight great provincial towns alone of more than 100,000, that is to say about twice as many as are required each year by the normal growth of population in the whole of Great Britain and Ireland.

These figures clearly show that there is no lack of dwellings. If, as may be the case, these particular dwellings do not, from age, position, lack of sanitary conveniences, or other fault, meet the requirements of to-day, the true remedy is to be found in a quite other direction.

What is quite certain is that the tendency of mankind at the present day to drift into certain vortices of activity, leads to an entirely unhealthy congestion of the population, and imposes upon them a crushing burden in the shape of rent. If building land is scarce, the remedy is to provide more of it, and no section of the community is more vitally interested than surveyors in the provision of this remedy and its right application.

It has been the wholesome practice of our race from time immemorial to allow both individuals and institutions to develop of their own initiative, and along the lines which Nature or Providence has indicated to them; and we cannot doubt that some of the national characteristics on which we most pride ourselves are due to the independence so engendered. But we are beginning to realise that if we are to keep pace with the rest of the world it is time to substitute the reign of science for the rule of thumb. Towns have sprung up in the past where some endowment of nature has offered advantages to men's activity. Our great ports are the natural offspring of safe harbours and convenient waterways. Manchester has thriven in the moist atmosphere which

it is said keeps the cotton spinner's raw material in the right state of tension. Sheffield and Birmingham owe their existence to the close juxtaposition of their coal and iron. Burton acquired its pre-eminence through the peculiar quality of its water, whose excellence for the purposes of brewing may be imitated artificially, but cannot be surpassed. But the progress of science, the development of the means of rapid communication, and above all the application of electricity as a motive power have made it possible for countless industries to be established at will in many widely differing localities with equal success.

Here and there great single employers of enlightened ideas, such as the Levers at Port Sunlight and the Cadburys at Bournville, have created new towns for their own special businesses, while at Letchworth an attempt is being made to achieve a similar success by the co-operation of a number of lesser individuals. Many firms have found it amply repay them to transfer their mills, factories or works from the crowded centres of population to the open country. At a single step they halve the gigantic expenditure in rates, obtain greater ground accommodation at a lower rent, and increase the working efficiency of their employees, who can now live within a few minutes' walk of their daily work, and under conditions as healthy as before they were harmful.

Why should not this experiment be followed all over the country? Why should we not create new towns on more scientific lines than the old ones? It should be possible with a comprehensive map of the railway systems of the country and adequate information as to soil, water supply, and the nature of the chief industries in the neighbouring towns, to place one's finger on scores of sites throughout England where similar success would follow in the creation of new centres of popula-

tion. I put it to you that this is the true remedy for overcrowding and racial degeneration.

Many industries can be carried on with almost equal facility in any place where sufficient labour exists, and means of access are adequate. Offer to such industries the opportunity of cutting down their working costs while adding to their working efficiency, and I venture to assert that it will be eagerly taken. Population will mechanically transfer itself to the new centre, and we shall witness a reversion to the old-time ideal of home industries, though established under modern conditions. The work will no longer be taken to the home, but the homes will have been brought to the work. If at the same time the provisions of the Town Planning Bill are honestly carried out, a noiseless revolution of the most beneficent kind will have been effected in the lives of our town dwellers.

No amount of legislation will prevent the operation of the laws of supply and demand. So long as certain areas seem to offer greater possibilities of gain, so long will the market price of sites in those areas continue to rise, no matter whether the owner be an individual or the State. The mere penalising by heavy taxation of the fortunate possessors of such sites may bring in some additional revenue, but it will create in the man who is subjected to it a fierce hostility which is not calculated to assist social progress, while the worker in whose supposed interest the injustice is done, will not profit at all. But if instead of the principle of subtraction we apply the principle of substitution, at once the pressure upon the more crowded districts will be eased. The scramble for the unwholesome one or two-roomed tenement in the dingy slum will gradually come to an end. The profits now said to be unreasonably obtained by the freeholder will no longer accrue. The economic

law, silent in its action and irresistible in its effects, will, without any of the machinery of legislation or the harsh inquisition of the tax gatherer, effectively destroy the power of the harpy who speculates in the misery of his poorer brethren.

We shall have replaced the competition of the buyer by the competition of the seller; and in the selection of areas suitable for the application of these principles and in the development of those areas on sound lines, I venture to assert that there lies before the members of our profession an unequalled opportunity of benefiting at once their country and themselves.

Mr. WATNEY (Past-President) said he had listened with great pleasure to the Address which his old friend their President had given them, and he was sure they would all join in a most hearty and cordial vote of thanks to him. He had evidently given a great deal of time and thought to his Address, as anyone who had heard it read, or who might afterwards study it, must recognise. He would like to add his humble tribute to the kind things which the President had said of their late friend Mr. John Wornham Penfold. He was a very dear friend of his. He had known him for a great many years and he was quite sure that the profession has lost one of its most experienced and able surveyors.

There was an unwritten law that when proposing a vote of thanks to the President for his Address no criticism should be made. If that were not the rule or if he were allowed to break through it, he did not know what criticism he could offer upon this Paper. It was most exhaustive, and whether Mr. Stenning in his capacity of President touched upon the food land or upon the building land, he practically agreed with him in all he had said.

The President had given them a very valuable Paper, and he was quite sure it would meet with their approval, and be accorded a very hearty vote of thanks.

Mr. LANGRIDGE (Past-President) said it gave him much pleasure to second the vote of thanks, but before doing so might he again emphasise the sorrow of the Council and of all the Members at the loss they had sustained through the death of Mr. John Wornham Penfold, whose whole life and soul was wrapped up in the success of The Institution, which he had seen grow up from its infancy to its present state.

With regard to the Paper they had had from their President that evening, they must all agree that he had evidently given much thought to its preparation. He had dealt with almost every point touched upon by proposed land legislation and with its possible effects, but in no party spirit. All were deeply anxious that anything which might be done should prove of benefit to the country, but many feared lest ill-conceived legislation should bring more harm than good in its train.

In regard to the question of small holdings and the cry of "Back to the Land," they had to remember that the men now being placed in the various holdings were really in a somewhat worse position than the men who previously occupied them. To what extent the new landlords, County Councils and others, might be equal to those who formerly held the land he could not say, it remained for the future to show, but so far as rent and taxation were concerned, the small holder would not be at any advantage, but possibly in a worse position than the man who farmed before him. The farmer under the old system was supposed to have some knowledge of his business, whereas many of the men now taking the farms had that to learn. He felt certain that placing the men

on the land was not sufficient whoever took this responsibility must not stop there, but must see that they had opportunities of making money on the land, or they would not thank them for what had been done. They all wished the venture success; they all wished that the people might be brought back to the land, but the only thing that could bring them back was that their labour should bring them a fair remuneration. He was afraid that that after all was really the cause why so many had left the land to go to towns, the remuneration the land had offered had not been sufficient to justify them in remaining.

Mr. Stenning had touched on nearly every subject, and touched on them so well that even were he allowed to say anything in the way of criticism he thought that very careful study of the Paper would be necessary before he found anything to disagree with.

With regard to building land, supply and demand must regulate prices. Possibly greater burdens on building land might make the weaker men give way, but the land would then simply get into the hands of the stronger men who could afford to wait, and in the end the public would have to pay any additional burden which was put on the land.

He was sure they would all join with him in thanking the President most heartily for the able Paper he had read, and for the thought and care he had given to it. He had very great pleasure in seconding the vote of thanks.

Mr. Courthope Munroe (Associate), in supporting the vote of thanks, said he was very glad, as representing another profession, to be permitted to thank Mr. Stenning for his most able and interesting address. Before doing that, however, he should like to join the proposer and

seconder in expressing the deep sense of loss they felt in the death of Mr. Penfold, with whom many of his profession had had personal relations, when he was a Member of the Tribunal of Appeal.

Although no discussion was allowed on this paper, might he say one or two words on the very excellent points made in the address. First of all there was the question of small holdings and the possibilities of the land. He had given a good deal of thought to small holdings, and was bound to say he entirely agreed with the views expressed by the President. Recently he purchased a small farm of 160 acres. Becoming an owner of a small property and being a lawyer he began to examine his title deeds as a matter of curiosity. He had been astonished to find that when he got back about 150 years there were more than 50 families named in the deeds, in some cases with the names of their houses, all settled upon this small property of 160 acres. This, at only three to each family, made 150 people who had been clean wiped out, their habitations were gone and their names were forgotten. This exodus had not been caused by any Act of Parliament, but simply by economic changes. In the face of an example like that in Suffolk, he thought that the problem of reinstating men on the land needed very careful consideration. It was not sufficient to settle a man on a small holding of two or three acres and imagine that they had given him a living.

One other point occurred to him. The President, in giving figures, only went back 30 years, but it was an extraordinary thing to find that since 1846, when the Corn Laws were passed, upwards of one million people had been displaced from the land ; and there were to-day something like 2¼ million people actually unemployed. In 1846, 4 million acres were under wheat;

to-day, 1,400,000 acres. Five million acres had also been laid down to pasture since 1867. All these things were foreseen in 1846 by the House of Lords, and, oddly enough, that much abused tribunal, whilst they obeyed in those days the mandate of the people and passed the Corn Laws, saved their position by entering in the Journal of the House of Lords the following protest:

"The repeal of the Corn Laws will (1) make this "country dependent on foreign countries for supplies of "food. (2) There is no security or probability of other "countries adopting free imports. (3) It will probably "cause lands to be thrown out of cultivation. (4) It is "unjust to the landed interest while subject to exclusive "burdens for purposes of general advantage. (5) The "loss will fall most heavily on tenant farmers, and, "through them, on agricultural labourers. (6) Similar "results will befall tradesmen, who mainly depend on the "custom of those engaged in agriculture."

All these things had now come to pass, and when one regarded them, one had to consider seriously the benefit to be derived from small holdings, especially in the face of there being something like £153,000,000 worth of farm produce imported into this country in 1908.

In conclusion he thanked the President very much for his most excellent and able address.

The vote of thanks having been put to the meeting and carried unanimously,

The PRESIDENT said he most heartily thanked Mr. Watney and the Members for the way they had proposed and received the vote of thanks. He admitted he had given a few hours to the preparation of the Paper, and if it had given or would give them any assistance, he should be only too pleased to think he had done his duty.

The Meeting then adjourned.

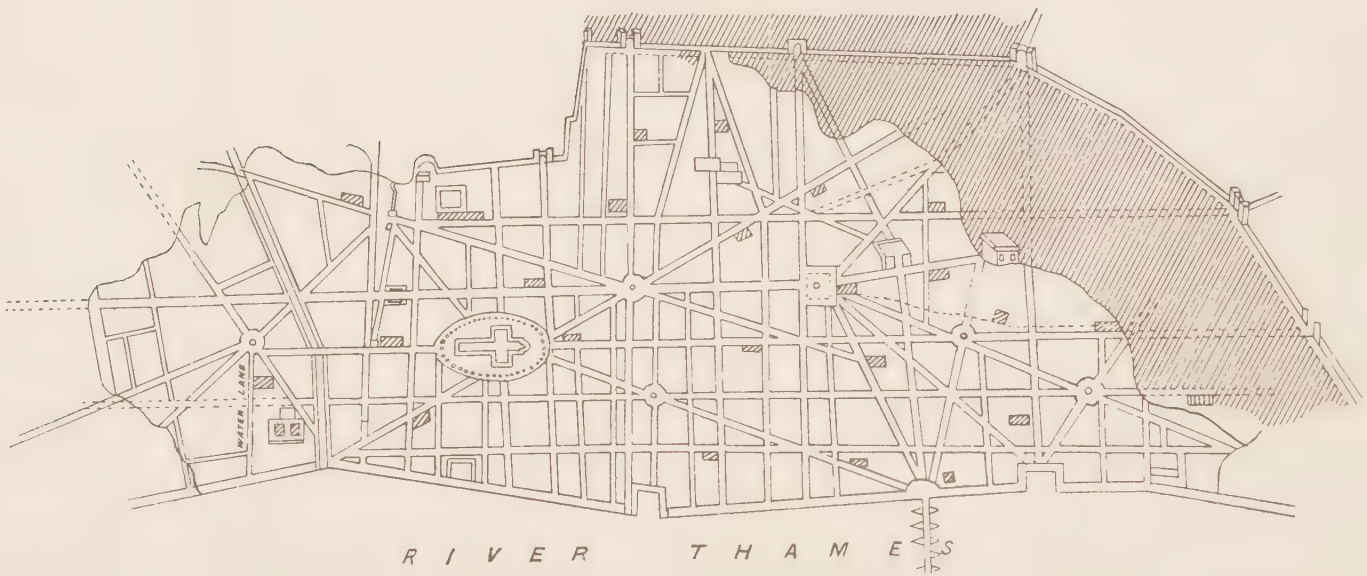
(*Frontispiece.*)

PLANS FOR LONDON.

(AFTER GREAT FIRE, 1666.)

SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN'S PROPOSAL.

EVELYN'S PROPOSAL.



Paper 359.
No. 547.

TOWN PLANNING SYSTEMS.

By W. R. DAVIDGE (Fellow).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, November 22nd*, 1909.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

A Paper on such a subject cannot, from the nature of things, be in any sense an exhaustive one, and I will crave your indulgence this evening if I limit my remarks to typical examples and to towns which for the most part I have specially visited for the purpose.

Town planning, although so much in the air at present, is no new thing. It cannot claim to be an invention of the twentieth century, or to be a new and startling discovery of the present generation, nor is it even due to the abilities of our immediate forerunners. Town planning has been practised, whether under that name or not, for many centuries. Opportunities of constructing a complete town at once or from a fixed plan have, however, been comparatively few, and even those opportunities have not perhaps always been utilised to the fullest extent.

In the older cities of the world an occasional disastrous conflagration, or the destruction of a portion of the city at the hands of friends or foes, has sometimes pre-

pared the way for a grand and general scheme of reconstruction, and many perhaps of the greatest and most famed of the cities of Europe owe their present magnificence in no small degree to the extent of their past calamities. London owes something to the Great Fire, and might have owed much more had the rebuilding been carried out in the way Wren and others would have had it. It is instructive even now to compare the schemes proposed by John Evelyn and Sir Christopher Wren for the rebuilding of London. Vienna, Paris and Berlin are all indebted to the sacrifices and often to the sufferings of the past, and it is possible that the development of these cities would not have been so complete or so satisfactory had they been constructed at their earliest inception on the lines of some general plan instead of by the troublous and slow development, piece by piece, they have been forced to follow.

Many of the newer cities in America and the Colonies, and also in some cases on the Continent of Europe as well as in the East and Far East, have been completely planned from their very commencement, and here one would think, with all conditions favourable, the nearest approach to perfection in town planning should be reached. In many cases indeed the result is the construction of a fine and spacious town, with abundant open spaces and streets of ample width. The very regularity of such a city may however become almost painful, with its monotonously straight and never-ending lines of buildings, with street after street all apparently the same and all apparently endless. The pedestrian in search of the other end of a street wearies from physical and mental fatigue, and still that painful unattainable end seems as far off as when he started.

Partial town planning, such as that involved in the

planning of suburbs and the general lines on which the development and extension of an already existing town shall proceed, is of more modern growth, and it is to this modern tendency that our attention is most naturally directed. Garden suburbs and model villages have been introduced in many localities, but so far the initiative in this direction has been left almost entirely to private enterprise. In very few cases has provision been made for anything like a complete or satisfactory scheme of transition from the bustling activities of the central portions of a city, through the districts devoted to trade and residences, out to the fresh beauty of the country beyond.

Town planning, as we know it, is but a development of the best points in existing systems and their adoption to a greater or less extent to the special requirements of the particular community. With the exception perhaps of the newer parts of Edinburgh, Eastbourne, Bath, and one or two smaller towns, very little definite planning has been carried out in Great Britain. The subject however is at last a living one in this country, and it behoves us to profit to the utmost of our powers by the experience of Continental and other nations who have adopted previous systems of town planning.

German Examples.

In Prussia and other parts of Germany, the municipal authorities have for many years been possessed of special powers to enable them to regulate the growth and extension of the towns under their control, and since the passing of the Prussian Street Lines and Building Lines Act, 1875, and even before that date, it has been customary for the town councils to prepare a building

plan for the gradual extension of the town and the laying out of the principal new streets within a reasonable radius of the already built up area. With a view to securing healthy conditions, towns are frequently divided into zones or districts, special restrictions as to height and area of buildings being applicable to each zone.

Technical writers in Germany have also turned their attention to the compilation of many excellent works dealing in detail with the preparation of town plans and the study of the examples of the past. Among these may be mentioned the names of Stübben, Baumeister, and Sitte, the latter of whom has made a close study of a very large number of mediæval and other towns whose charm is undeniable, and in particular of the architectural effect produced by judicious planning and grouping of buildings. We all know the delightful fascination of those old world cities, such as Nuremburg and Rothenburg, whose main charm lies perhaps not so much in their scientific planning as in the apparent haphazard grouping of the buildings round some quaint old market place or minster. Even in England our cathedral cities and many of our country villages stand out as possessing in some way a character of their own, often enhanced by some local association or special object of interest, such as a market cross or a village fountain. There is room, much room, in our modern work-a-day world for many such towns and villages, for anything which will give us inspiration and raise our thoughts out of the deadly monotony of the evergrowing and overgrowing suburbs of our modern towns.

One of the causes which has enabled many German towns to develop on a definite plan has been the existence from the earliest times of a large number of

reigning princes and grand dukes, who have generally been in close personal touch with their cities and towns, and have thus been in a position continually to plan and improve the principal towns without opposition, the rivalry between neighbouring principalities also being frequently effective in securing magnificent improvements.

Town plans, whether complete or only partially so, will generally resolve themselves into one or other of the following:—

1. Rectangular
2. Triangular
3. Radiating

} Constituting the Formal Systems;

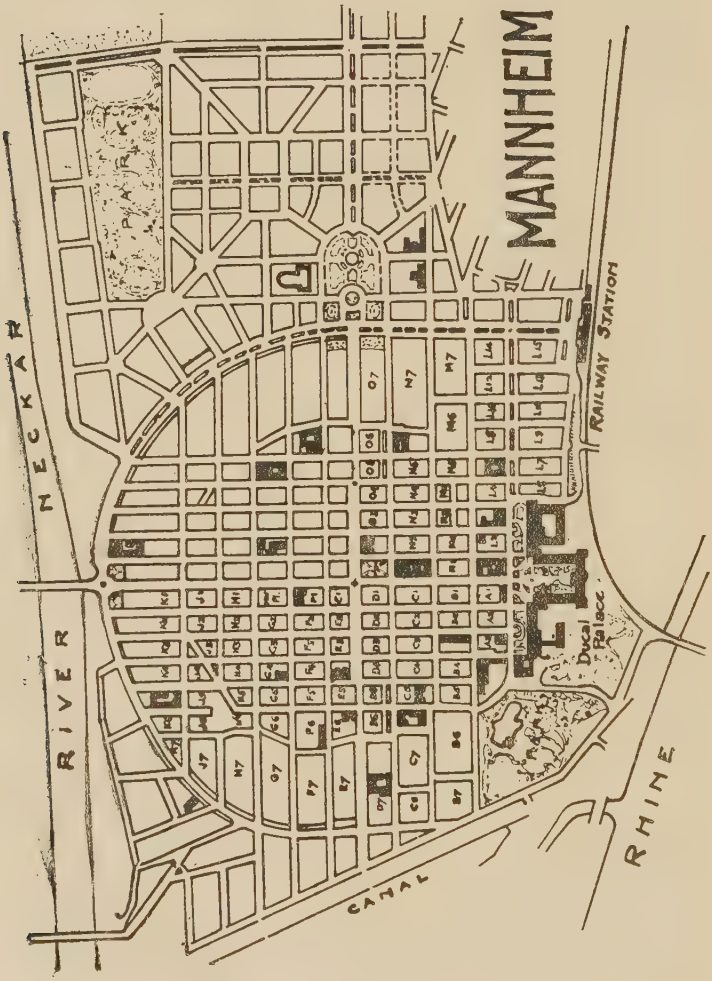
4. Irregular or Picturesque School;

with variations made up from the use of several or all of these systems.

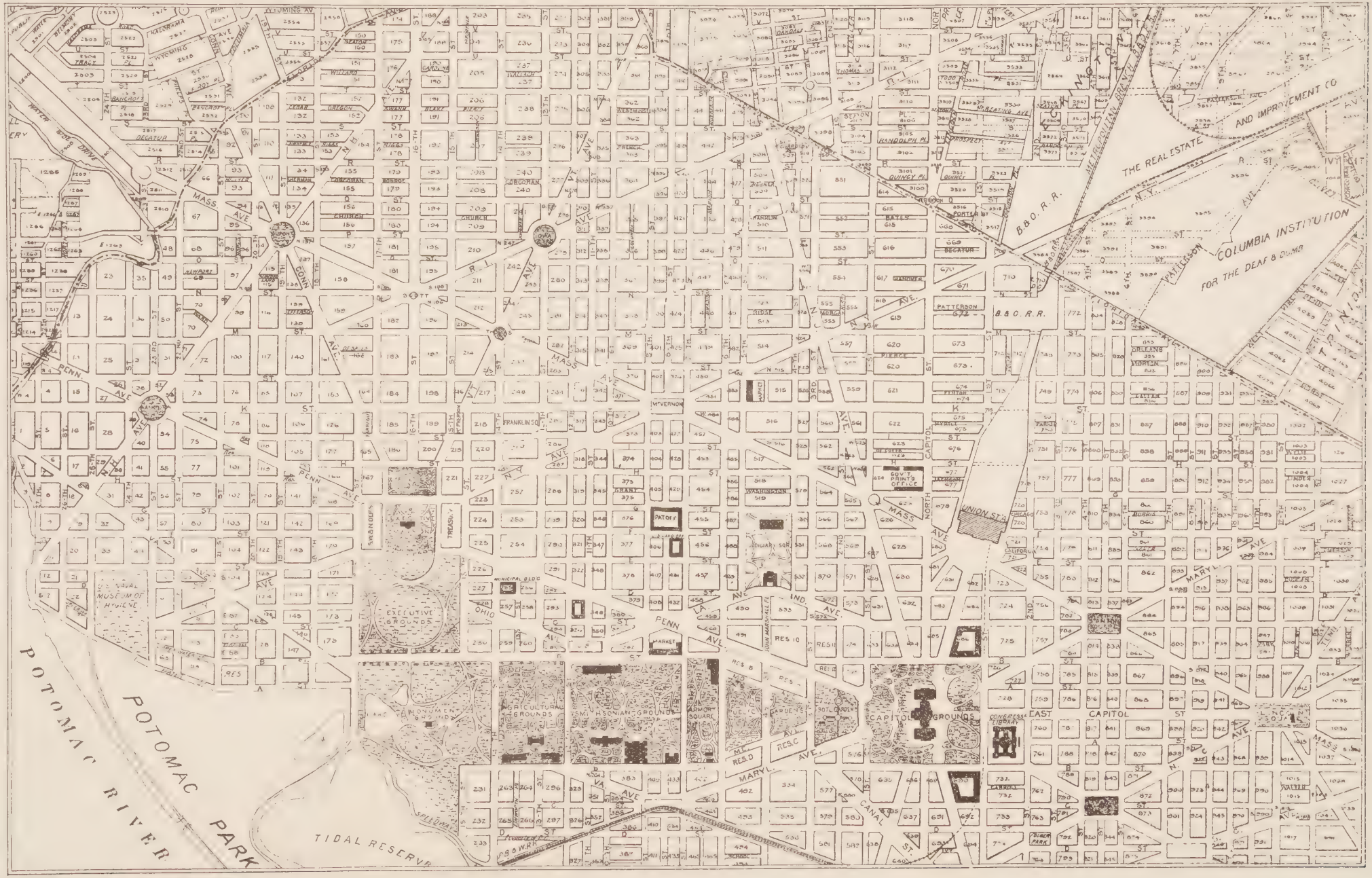
Rectangular Systems.

One of the earliest attempts at town planning on a considerable scale was that adopted in connection with the town of Mannheim, founded by the Elector Palatine in the seventeeth century. It will be seen from the plan accompanying this Paper that the general laying out was originally rectangular, the outer streets, farthest from the ducal castle, being united at a later date by a semi-circular road or boulevard (ring strasse). No names were given to the streets, the numbering of the blocks being sufficient for their identification, blocks running one way being known as A, B, C, D, &c., and the other way as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. This system is still retained in Mannheim. The address of any particular house being, say: Mannhem 45 H7. This principle,

however, has not been extended to the newer portions of the town since erected.



Rectangular plans have been adopted, either wholly or partially, in many of the world's principal cities. The plans of Melbourne and Ballarat will serve to illustrate



C.F. KELLY & SON, PHOTO LITHO, WESTMINSTER

CITY OF **WASHINGTON**, U.S.A.,

AND PORTION OF SURROUNDING **DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.**

Limits of Original Federal City shewn by dark line.

the way in which the principle has been adopted in Australia. It will be noted in these plans that radiating or diagonal streets have also been constructed to meet traffic requirements. The general laying out of the suburbs is, however, on rectangular lines.

In America a somewhat similar method of laying out has been adopted for Washington, the capital city of the United States, diagonal avenues in this case also being arranged to converge on the principal national buildings.

I am indebted to Mr. Melvin C. Hazen, Surveyor of the District of Columbia, for the plan of Washington, and the surrounding district exhibited on the wall. The dotted lines represent proposed streets which were prepared under a Highway Commission appointed by the President of the United States. All sub-divisions now made are on the lines of these proposed streets, and no sub-division is approved by the Commissioners that does not conform to this plan.

The broad diagonal avenues are named after the States and Territories of the United States.

Streets running north and south are numbered consecutively each way from the meridian of the Capitol. If the streets are not direct continuations of city streets, their names correspond with the names of city streets most nearly due north and south in the line of their continuation.

Streets running east and west are named from the letters of the alphabet until these letters are exhausted, and beyond this in accordance with a plan approved by the Commissioners.

Small streets not forming an essential part of the rectangular system of streets are designated "places."

In October, 1906, a system of numbering blocks was

adopted under authority of Congress, thus preventing a duplication of squares in any part of the district, and also simplifying the system of land registration. The proposed streets have been marked on the ground by monuments at prominent points, thus facilitating surveys and the setting out of building plots.

The survey and registration certificates attached will also be of interest.

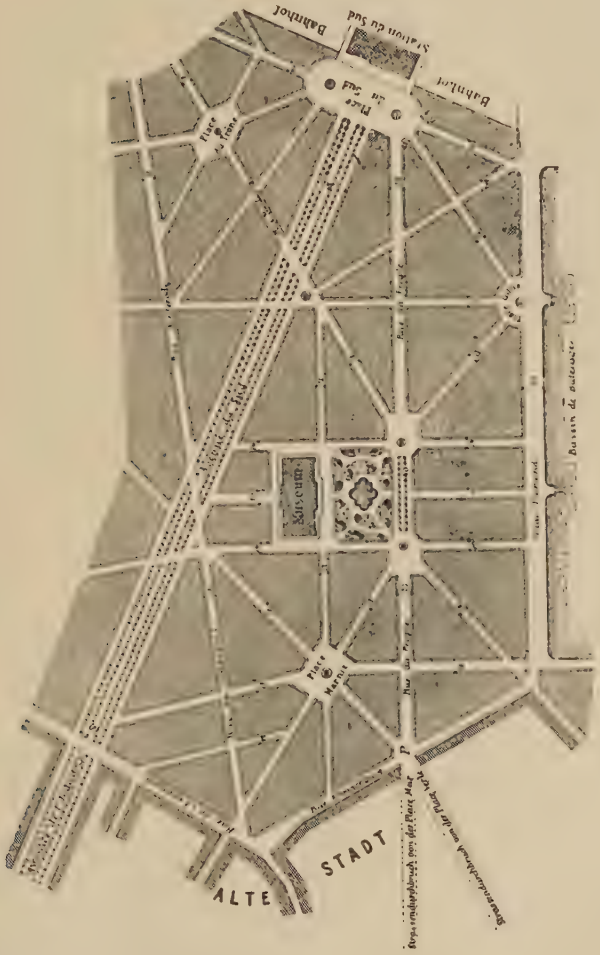
The rigidly rectangular plan posssesses the advantage of being simple and easily understood, as well as of facilitating setting out and economical building. Direct transit from point to point is, however, from the nature of things impracticable in the majority of cases, though by the aid of a good system of tramways or public vehicles, this defect can be greatly minimised. It may be taken almost as a definite rule, however, that there are in every town or centre, whether new or old, certain well-defined, though possibly irregular lines of route or main roads leading from the outskirts into the central portions of the city, and the rectangular alignment of the streets thus frequently resolves itself into a series of separate districts sometimes aligned at varying angles.

Triangular Systems.

The disadvantages to which a strictly rectangular system is subject, if there are no diagonal or other streets in an oblique direction, are plainly apparent, and to remedy this what may be termed the "triangular" system has occasionally been introduced. The object in such cases is usually to provide the shortest possible route between any two points, or in other words to facilitate "short cuts" for traffic; the incidental effects achieved should also be to open out architectural vistas

in numerous directions, culminating in many instances in public monuments or monumental buildings. It must

ANTWERP—SOUTH QUARTER.



not be overlooked, however, that any triangular system of this nature inevitably produces irregular building

plots, and also has the effect of concentrating traffic at the principal circuses or squares formed by the intersection of the rectangular or diagonal streets. Anyone remembering for a moment the effect of concentrating five or six streets at the corner of the Mansion House and the Bank of England will appreciate the necessity for ample space to be provided at such intersection if the traffic is not to be hindered unduly. It should be noted, too, that in that instance the principal lines of traffic are really only in two or at most three directions.

The Southern Quarter at Antwerp may be taken as a typical example of a modern city extension on what may be called triangular lines. In this plan the main avenue is tree lined and of considerable width, the diagonal and other streets being arranged to meet at squares specially laid out for this purpose.

Radiating Systems.

The radiating system is perhaps the ideal one, if the "hub" is of sufficient attraction or importance to the community. This system is well illustrated by the laying out of the town of Carlsruhe about 1715—another example of the power of ducal government.

The general plan in this case is fan-shaped, the ducal residence being at the centre and the various streets radiating in all directions from the circular enclosure surrounding the residence; cross streets being constructed approximately at right angles to the radial streets. In addition one or two main intersecting streets have also been constructed. This plan has the advantage of giving ready access to or from the ducal residence, but it is somewhat disconcerting for a stranger to see the same tower down every street he passes, particularly if

he is not possessed of a well-developed "bump" of locality. Fortunately, perhaps, Carlsruhe is not a large

town, and one half of the circle is reserved for a public park and gardens. The ducal palace is the centre to which every thoroughfare leads and to which all other

buildings—all other interests—are subjected. It is to be feared that the object of the grand duke in adopting this plan was not entirely disinterested, but the plan might with advantage be partially adopted in other instances where the central attraction is of sufficient importance to demand prominence.

Other examples of this principle are afforded by the streets radiating from the Arc de Triomphe, Paris, and to a lesser extent from St. George's Circus, London.

In Mr. Ebenezer Howard's first proposal for the building of an ideal city on the lines of the now well-known "Garden City," the central core of the whole was to be formed by an extensive and beautiful public park, and such an ideal as this—a perpetual inspiration to the inhabitants and a permanent and health-giving memorial to the wisdom and foresight of its founders—is one that is well worthy of consideration.

Such conditions for the establishment of a complete city are perhaps but rarely found, but opportunities may occur in the future, as they have in the past, of carrying out such an idea, at least in part. It must, however, be in such a way as will not oppress the beholder with a sense of monotony or wearisome repetition of precisely the same vista, however beautiful.

Modern German Examples.

More modern examples of town planning than that of Carlsruhe are afforded by the cities of Cologne and Frankfort-on-Main. Both these towns have been fortunate in preserving the space formerly occupied by the encircling walls and fortifications as a ring of public gardens or parks around the inner city, thus obtaining a broad boulevard or ring strasse, something like that

which has helped to make Vienna so famous. The development of the outer suburbs also is proceeding on a definite plan in both Cologne and Frankfort.

The town plans in these cases have been prepared with a view to the probable requirements of the city for many years to come, and as will be seen from the official plan of Frankfort it will probably be many years before the full advantage of the scheme is obtained; in the meanwhile, however, many thousands of dwellers in the vicinity of the broad boulevards and tree-planted streets are receiving the advantages that come from abundance of open space and fresh air in pleasant surroundings.

But it must not be overlooked that these wide streets are very costly as regards both the land which they occupy and the actual cost of construction. In the majority of cases the whole cost falls upon the owners, and the natural consequence is that in order to recoup this outlay the rents are forced up and as many people as possible crowded into the high tenements or dwellings which are so often a feature of the German towns. Thus, although to outward appearance a fine city may be secured, it does not by any means follow that overcrowding and its attendant evils are removed. The population in the leading German towns varies from about 30 to 50 persons for each house, that of Berlin reaching 52·6 persons per house.

The main features of the proposed development at Frankfort are an outer ring of boulevards or "Allees," from which the subsidiary streets branch off in apparently haphazard directions. The majority of these lesser streets have a definite trend or direction towards the main highways leading towards the centre of the town, which are well supplied with tramways. The streets where straight, have as a general rule some

object to which they lead, or some vista which they aid in preserving.

Irregular Outlines.

So far we have dealt mainly with straight lines and with regular systems, but probably the cities which really most charm us and which live in our memories long years after we have visited them, are the quaint old-world places, with their irregular streets, their quiet dreamy squares or their bustling market places, withal overshadowed by some grey old minster or some monument of the past; or perhaps our thoughts stray to some quaint cluster of houses nestling round its village green. Wherein lies their undeniable charm? To what extent, and within what limits can their quaintness, their subtle attractions, their very irregularities be imitated at the present day, or rather—is it still possible to catch a little of the spirit—a little of that innate love of the beautiful which seems to have been part of the lives of those old craftsmen who have gone before us? Much of the charm of these cities is undoubtedly due to their associations and to the atmosphere of antiquity which surrounds them, but beyond all these there are many things which may well be studied with advantage by the most up-to-date of town planners. Sitte's book, already alluded to, deals with this aspect of town planning in a most fascinating manner, and shows how town after town of mediæval times owes its picturesqueness, its quaintness and often much of its artistic charm to the skilful grouping of the buildings, and perhaps above all to the intuitive sense of proportion in the—to us—haphazard dimensions and arrangement of the public

"places," and to the irregular outlines of the street frontages.

Modern requirements demand that the streets shall be of ample width, and there can be no two opinions that the tree-planted street with its welcome shade and refreshing greenness is to be preferred to the narrow street of the older type or to the barren and scorching wilderness of dust or paving which is unfortunately so often typical of the modern city. There does not, however, appear to be any reason why we should not adopt at any rate a few of the principles which seem to have guided our forefathers to such successful results. It sounds almost sacrilege to say it, but it is just possible that our building acts and bye-laws may be in some way a mistake, that our rigid enforcement of building lines and regulations apparently aiming at establishing a perfectly straight unbroken expanse of blank wall—miles of it—without a projection of any sort if it can be avoided, may be misguided.

Provision for Future Development.

In laying out a new town or portion of a town the necessities of the future will naturally have precedence over all other considerations, and due regard must be given to:—

1. The lines and widths of main routes and directions of principal subsidiary streets, having regard to prevailing winds, traffic requirements, preservation of views, &c.

2. Public buildings to be provided, churches, schools, public halls, theatres, baths, libraries, post offices, municipal buildings, and such like—their number and probable size.

3. Open spaces to be provided for
   (*a*) Playgrounds, parks, and recreation grounds.
   (*b*) Public squares, having regard to probable extent and grouping of public buildings, monuments, &c.

4. Districts to be reserved for factories and dwellings, and zones for limits of heights of buildings (if any).

Difference between English and German Conditions.

The above considerations and any others dictated by special local circumstances should naturally be taken into account in any plan for town extension, but it should here be noted that the results achieved will probably be very different in towns of differing characteristics, and still more so in countries whose whole ideals and aspirations as to home life are so different as those of England and Germany.

In our own country the Englishman's house is, at any rate in theory, still his castle, and the ambition of the thoughtful artisan or other worker—and a laudable ambition it is, too—is to occupy a cottage pleasantly situated in the country or in the outskirts of the town in which his work lies. The high value of land has, in many instances it is true, dictated the erection of block dwellings, but the British working man as a rule does not take kindly to these, unless his necessities oblige him to live in close contact with his work.

In Germany it is the rule rather than the exception for the artizans' dwellings to be of the tenement type, and it will be seen from the figures already given as to the average population per house in several of the leading German industrial centres that, despite

other improvements, overcrowding in that sense is much more rife even than in England. It follows from this fact that the population is much less closely housed in this country, that our English cities, and particularly their suburban districts, occupy a much greater area than a similar population would require in Germany. The problem of development is thus if anything a more complex one, and any schemes for town planning should provide for future development in a much more expansive way than is necessary with our neighbours.

The throwing down of the town walls and fortifications within comparatively recent times in many continental cities has given an opportunity for a belt of public grounds or broad tree-planted boulevards within comparatively easy reach of the centre. The ducal or autocratic control so common in many of the German cities has also to a large extent enabled the problems of town development to be undertaken on comprehensive lines and on broad principles.

We in England have no town walls to demolish and we are not, fortunately or unfortunately, under such autocratic sway. The great ground landlords of many of our large towns could nevertheless do much for the public good in this direction if they would but unite forces with the representative local authorities of their districts. We have nevertheless other compensating advantages for the purposes of town planning in the larger area and more convenient proportions of our enclosures, and as a rule in the fewer number of owners with whom negotiations must be opened. The cottage dwellings and other two-storey buildings so usual in this country also render unnecessary in the majority of cases any special legislation or regulation, so common in Germany, for limiting the height. Fresh air and pre-

vailing winds alike find easy access to dwellings under such conditions if sufficient open space is provided around the buildings.

But the density of population allowed or rather encouraged by our present model by-laws may be anything up to 300 or more per acre for even our ordinary two-storey cottages, and it would certainly seem advisable that some improvement in the amount of the private open spaces to be provided, as well as those of a more public character, should go hand in hand with any scheme worthy of the name of town planning.

Streets.

Modern traffic requirements demand that all parts of a city shall be accessible to rapidly moving vehicles and, particularly since the advent of the motor, the idea seems to be general that these streets shall be as straight as a dart.

The widths to be provided for the various classes of streets are of the utmost importance, and the possible direction of future lines of route should as far as possible be anticipated. The lesser subsidiary streets will naturally be planned in each case with due regard to the contour of the ground, direction of prevailing winds, access to railway stations and other points, and last but not least the question will have to be considered whether a straight or curved street is to be adopted. The cost, of making up streets, macadamised or paved the full width, is considerable, and it would in many cases be cheaper and more effective to make up only the width necessary for the actual traffic, leaving grass margins at each side.

The approximate widths of various important streets are given below :—

	Feet.
London—Kingsway and Aldwych Blackfriars Bridge	100
Victoria Embankment—near Westminster Bridge	130
Whitehall—widest portion	120 to 145
Holborn Viaduct and Northumberland Avenue	90
Regent Street Quadrant	85
Piccadilly	75
Queen Victoria Street	70
Oxford Street— near Oxford Music Hall near North Audley Street	58 to 88
Cheapside and Fleet Street	48 to 60
Edinburgh—Princes Street	100
Paris—Champs Elysées	230
Avenue de l'Opera	98
Washington—Main Avenues	120 to 160
Vienna—Ring Strasse	186 to 200
Berlin—Unter den Linden	190
Frankfurt—Ordinary tree-planted roads	65 to 78
Wider promenades	115

Broad straight thoroughfares are naturally best adapted for monumental avenues leading directly to some national or civic building of sufficient importance, and possibly it might also be added for main through roads conducting one to important towns. It is at least questionable, however, whether long straight streets do not lose much of their effect if constructed in too great profusion, and without any special objective. Such an

avenue should have some special *raison d'être* to justify its existence, and it should terminate in something more inspiring than a dust destructor or a house of refreshment.

The typical irregularity of the streets of nearly all old cities is attributable to their gradual historical development, and their sometimes astonishing twists and turns may generally be ascribed to practical causes, such as the presence of an ancient way or watercourse. But it must be borne in mind that the irregularities of a plan which look so strange on paper are not necessarily disagreeable in actual execution, but often give an added interest or more picturesque effect to the street. Regularity of plan is by no means essential; St. Paul's Cathedral is on an entirely different axis to the line of Ludgate Hill, but the effect is certainly not diminished by this apparent accident of position.

Break in the Line of View.

With streets as well as with squares it is frequently desirable to "frame" or limit the view, and this is most generally achieved by forming a break or curve in the line of sight, the junction of Regent Street with Portland Place will serve to exemplify this, and the construction of quadrants and curved façades is another expression of this general feeling. With a strongly marked curve (such as the quadrant in Regent Street) there may possibly be a tendency to irritation if the length is unnecessarily prolonged, but with a slightly curving frontage there is ample opportunity for a continually varying horizon, for a moving picture of continual charm. This is particularly the case where numerous objects or buildings of interest exist on

the same line of route. The curved frontage of Fleet Street as one goes westwards with first the tower of St. Dunstan's Church, then the Law Courts, and the Strand churches beyond, will occur to everyone, and the noble sweep of the Thames Embankment undoubtedly owes most of its effect to the graceful curve which shows off its buildings to such splendid advantage. Imagine the difference if the river were confined between rigid walls of straight lines.

For a tree-planted street, a slightly curved line not too regular in form gives perhaps the most pleasing effect, and for suburban streets in particular this method of planning with its continual green vistas of trees is worthy of the utmost encouragement. The most successful of the garden suburbs have in many cases been designed on such lines—a maximum of garden, a minimum of suburb. Even in this case, however, the curved streets should not be overdone. Nothing is more bewildering to a stranger than to find himself in a labyrinth of streets curving in every direction except that in which he wishes to go.

In a town street a curved or irregular line of frontage may be made to provide just the spaces for cabstands, sandbins, public ambulances, telephones, fire escapes, fire calls, and the other conveniences which are so essential to the comfort of life in a modern city. In a less crowded street the continual change of view, due to the irregular frontage, helps to break the thoroughfare up into short sections; the foot traveller feels conscious as he passes landmark after landmark on his way that he is indeed making good progress, and presses forward with encouragement, very different to the unfailing weariness produced by a mile of straight road both on mind and body.

In modern towns irregularities of planning have not perhaps always been a success, their artificial character is too apparent, and in many cases the irregularities are simply cut-away plots of triangular shape produced in connection with street "improvements," or perhaps due to the parallel shape of plots forcing the houses into "*echelon*" formation. The crooked street of our forefathers is perhaps too crooked for modern ideas, but it should at any rate be possible for us to grasp some of the principles which consciously or unconsciously must have guided the men of the past. With the advance of sanitation, and the increase of traffic, we demand wider streets and more breathing space, but let us not aim at showing our superior wisdom simply by the extent to which we have developed the art of drawing straight lines.

Straight streets are undoubtedly necessary for many purposes, if wisely used they give an air of stateliness and a sense of fitness and monumental grandeur, but the so often reiterated use of the rectangular or draught board pattern of street planning, without consideration to the shape or contour of the ground or to any other local circumstance, cannot but be regretted.

Traffic Centres.

The width and general direction of the streets having been decided upon, there will necessarily be many important centres or points of crossing at which the traffic will be much heavier than in other parts of the town. At these points the difficulties of dealing with the traffic will naturally be increased, and it may perhaps be of service briefly to scrutinise a few of the methods that have been adopted to minimise the

inconvenience and danger of thus concentrating the traffic.

The rounding off of all corners produces naturally the familiar form of circus, of which so many examples are to be found in London.

The introduction of a few more converging streets produces the *rond point*, so characteristic of the stereotyped form of town plan.

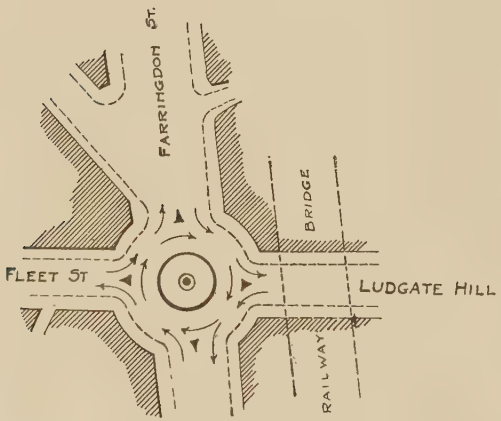
A more ancient method of dealing with the difficulty is by the construction of a small open square or market place, thus dispersing the traffic over a wider area.

If the levels admit, one thoroughfare may sometimes cross the other by means of a bridge, as in the case of Holborn and Farringdon Street, or in the manner suggested by Mr. Paul Waterhouse to the Royal Institute of British Architects in 1906, in connection with the proposals of the London Traffic Commission. Sir John Wolfe Barry, too, some time ago suggested a bridge over the Strand at Wellington Street. Such methods, however, by reason of the difference of levels and cost involved can only be for exceptional cases in which the traffic is sufficiently heavy to justify the outlay.

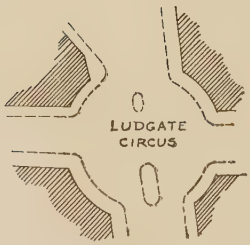
In this connection it may be interesting to note the suggestions recently made in a Report upon the street traffic of Paris. The suggestion is not so much a constructive one as for the regulation of existing traffic, and to enable two or more streams of traffic to cross at any angle without confusion. It is suggested that at important street junctions circuses should be formed with a central island of some size, the traffic being made to circulate solely to the left, or in one direction only. Some such system of traffic regulation is at any rate worthy of a trial, and with the assistance of the London policeman should not be difficult to carry out.

The diagram below shews how this principle might be adopted at such a point as Ludgate Circus.

DIAGRAM SHOWING CIRCULAR TRAFFIC REGULATION.



Ludgate Circus, with circular traffic regulation



Circus as at present

It will be noted that the central island must be of sufficient size to ensure a general circular motion to

the traffic, and the triangular refuges must also be arranged to assist this. The main drawback appears to be that traffic proceeding from one road to another immediately on the right would have to make almost a complete circuit of the space. The system seems simple provided the vehicles are in single file, but complications might arise with two or three lines of traffic in each direction. It might be advisable, also in cases of any heavy traffic to provide subways or other facilities for foot passengers. The French proposal suggests that the central space might be entirely open at a level of about 10 feet below the street, short subways being constructed from this to staircases at the various street corners.

Public Parks.

Many town councils both in England and on the Continent have been far sighted enough to purchase comparatively cheap land on the outskirts of their town for the purposes of public parks, and in many continental cities this system of land purchase by the local authorities has been utilised to secure for the community itself the profit from the continual expansion and consequent rise in land values. A system of municipal land speculation of this kind has many advantages for the community, but it is naturally open to considerable opposition from private landowners.

However this may be, parks must always be provided for the public, and these should be in as easy communication as possible with the most congested portions of the town. The presence of a park in itself tends to improve the whole of the surrounding property,

and naturally the better class of houses will be found in close proximity to such breathing spaces.

Gardens and Open Spaces.

It is not too much to say that public gardens or tree-planted spaces are a vital necessity for the health and well-being of the community, and there can be no question that the beauty of a town is greatly enhanced by the presence of a sufficiency of trees and well-kept gardens. Ample space should also be provided for the purpose of playgrounds for the children, and these should be of a pleasant character and something more than gravel or asphalte wildernesses.

A point that is not always borne in mind in designing squares or open spaces is the proportion which the space should bear to the surrounding buildings, and particularly to the dominating building which is to abut upon it. The charm of the older cities was in hardly any case obtained by the use of large open spaces; their pleasing result was attained by a judicious grouping or arrangement of comparatively small spaces. Sitte states that in front of a building such as a church of considerable height in proportion to its breadth, in which the "vertical" note predominates, the "place" or open space should be *deep* and narrow, while in front of a long façade such as that of a town hall or other building of considerable length the open space should be *wide*, rather than deep. Experience shows, he says, that the minimum dimensions of a "place" should be equal to the height of the principal edifice fronting thereon, and that its maximum dimensions ought not to be more than double such height.

Another point which he emphasises from an artistic

standpoint is the necessity, particularly in the case of squares or open spaces, for closing in or "*framing*" the view, so that the buildings appear to be continuous.

In many of the older cities it will be found that the streets and thoroughfares communicating with open squares or "places" do not run directly into the centre of the open space as in so many modern plans, but rather enter one end of it. In others the "place" is artificially enclosed by colonnading or entrance arches, to form a closed-in view.

Possibilities for London.

No paper on town planning would be complete which did not touch upon the possibilities of improving the great collection of towns which we call London. The London Traffic Commission a year or so ago deliberated upon the peculiar difficulties which beset London, and with the passing of an Act dealing with the subject of town planning it is possible that some considerable alleviation may be effected in the present conditions of traffic congestion.

The first necessity is for co-ordination of effort among the many authorities in whose tender mercies the hapless Greater London is situated. Some such co-ordination should be possible under the direction of a central authority invested with sufficient powers.

Given such co-operation, the next thing is evidently to take stock of our present advantages—our parks, open spaces, water-courses, commons, country lanes and main highways, and to make all such assets as accessible and convenient as possible.

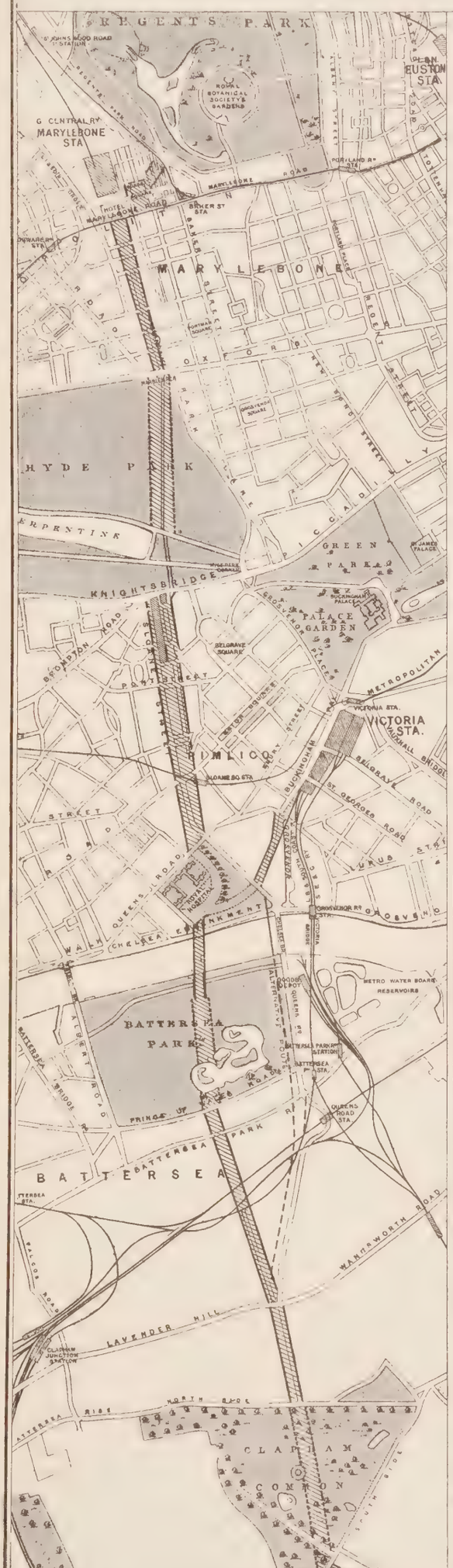
Of Garden Suburbs we have already a few, but they need to be increased in all directions.

In parks and open spaces London is apparently well provided, but many of these are concentrated in the better-class neighbourhoods, and whole tracts of bricks and mortar still exist with hardly a tree-planted street, and only an occasional spot of green grass in the shape of a disused burial ground. In North London we have Regent's Park and Hampstead; in East London there is Victoria Park. These make a good show on the map, but they are within reach of a proportion of the people only. Meanwhile areas which might be utilised as public parks are steadily absorbed by factories and rows of mean streets, each individual owner naturally striving to make his land return as much as possible by crowding the bricks and mortar as closely as building acts will allow.

Let us consider for a moment what sort of improvements are reasonably practicable. It is comparatively easy to plan an ideal city if "ways and means" have not to be considered, but in another sense it is just the existing "ways" and "means of communication" which must be considered and utilised to the fullest extent.

Apart from the question of improving and widening many of the existing roads out of London, and of providing new routes where necessary, one of the first considerations should undoubtedly be to bring the larger parks and as many other green open spaces as possible within easy reach of all sections of the community. A glance at the diagram map accompanying the Paper will show what might be done in the way of forming a broad boulevard or ring strasse, somewhat on the lines that have made Vienna and other cities so magnificent. It will be seen that the suggestion would provide for the connecting of the principal parks by a broad tree-planted avenue, with green grass and gardens at frequent

SUGGESTED PARKWAY
BETWEEN
REGENTS PARK & CLAPHAM COMMON



SUGGESTED PARKWAYS
HACKNEY SECTION

PRINCIPAL LONDON PARKS
AND
SUGGESTED PARKWAYS

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intervals. If some such proposal were adopted it would give an altogether different character to London. No matter in which direction one approached the central districts—the heart of the Empire—the eye would be able to rest upon at least one broad belt of greenery encircling the town. Imagine the improvement effected if Hackney Marshes, for example, were transformed from a plain bare wilderness of parched grass with straight ugly canals, into a veritable Bois de Boulogne intersected by beautiful waterways.

We do not make half enough of our present assets, and with expert assistance, such as can be readily given by members of our own and kindred professions, there will be innumerable fields for the beautifying of London.

The Regent's Canal is in many places one of the most beautiful of London's ways, but it means little, if anything, to the thousands of Londoners who catch but a glimpse of it from the top of an omnibus over the parapet of a high-walled brick bridge, or through the chinks of an advertisement hoarding. What a glorious series of shady walks might be made by its banks with a little thought, a little sacrifice.

Very few great cities are more finely situated by nature than London, if we could but realise it. Both on the north and south it is girdled by hills, and the broad expanse of heath at Hampstead and the hills of Sydenham and Forest Hill are splendid fringes for a splendid city.

On the east and west we have already an almost continuous chain of truly beautiful parks, and yet the main roads lined closely on each side by houses in many cases thread their way through the closely built area between the parks, almost within reach, yet entirely out of touch with the green grass and green fields. Nine-

tenths of the passengers on tram, or bus, or tube are entirely oblivious of the parks so near at hand, and, although they may perform the same journey day after day for years, have neither the time nor the inclination to go a hundred yards to see the parks so thoughtfully provided by an earlier generation. The remedy is clearly to open out all such parks so that they can be appreciated and utilised to the fullest possible extent.

London has also been fortunate in the past in taking advantage of the little hills and valleys which exist in her very midst. St. Paul's owes much of its effect to the height of Ludgate Hill on which it stands; the Valley of the Fleet, Notting Hill, and other natural beauties within the area of buildings will occur to everyone. One and all emphasize the necessity of taking the fullest advantage of every rise and fall of the ground.

Architectural Ideals.

No planning, however, can hope to be of real service in beautifying our cities unless the architecture of the buildings is in accord with its needs and worthy of its purpose. Some efficient architectural control there must be, but at the same time it is evident that in England at any rate as free a hand as possible should be given to individual tastes. With our present methods this may appear well-nigh impossible, but with a better and more general appreciation of the art of building it would not be an impossible ideal to reconcile these conflicting schools.

Although perhaps in the central and more important areas it may be necessary to require buildings to be to a strictly regulated and restrained design, in the outskirts there is no reason why much more latitude should not

be allowed for individual ideals. The garden suburbs, which have been formed in various places around our great cities, are many of them delightful in their planning and surroundings. Port Sunlight near Birkenhead, Bournville and Harborne near Birmingham, the Hampstead Garden Suburb and many other model estates in the neighbourhood of London, all testify to the advantage of such suburbs, combining as they do the beauty of the country and the facilities of the town.

Town Planning Authorities.

The Bill now before Parliament provides for the town planning scheme to be prepared by the local authority, such scheme, when approved by the Local Government Board, to have effect as if it were enacted in the Act.

The preparation of such a town plan will in the ordinary course of events be the work of a committee or commission appointed by the local authority or authorities concerned, and it is to be hoped that they will have the advantage of skilled expert advice. It may be interesting to compare this with the practice that obtains in German towns under the magisterial system.

The Mayor or Oberburgermeister is under this system elected for a long period of about 12 years, and he is assisted in his functions as head of the executive by a Cabinet of a select number of special councillors, also elected for a term of years. Practically the whole of the town government is in the hands of this paid Cabinet or "Magistrat," and they have the advantage of expert advice from the city architect, engineer and medical officer. In the preparation of town plans it is also

customary to consult one or other of the leading professional men of the country, who have built up reputations as specialists in this class of work.

In England it is evident that the preparation of a scheme so vitally affecting the future of a town must not be left entirely to a committee composed of butchers and bakers, however well meaning, or of property owners or others who have their own axes to grind. The best advice obtainable must be secured, and this will no doubt be readily and cheerfully given by surveyors, architects, valuers and all concerned with the material advancement of the town. The further submission of the completed scheme to the Local Government Board will ensure that a fair hearing is given to all objections raised and that the proposal is as free as possible from objectionable features. Whether it will also ensure that the scheme shall contain a sufficiency of sites for public buildings, gardens, parks, open spaces and similar amenities remains to be seen.

The acquirement of property required for these purposes and the compensation to be paid in a general scheme for redistribution of land would in themselves form ample material for an interesting treatise, and I do not propose to go into these questions which are somewhat outside the scope of my Paper.

General Conclusions.

A brief summary of the conclusions to which one is led may not be out of place, though in the nature of the case it cannot be considered as in any sense exhaustive.

1. Each town must have an individuality of its own.

2. Natural assets, such as hills, woods and water, must be preserved and extended.

3. Main lines of route must take the direction required by the traffic and contour of the ground.

4. Geometrical planning must not necessarily be adopted as satisfactory.

5. Long straight streets, when adopted, should have a definite "motive."

6. Slight curves or irregularities in frontage lines and building lines may, in many cases, be adopted with advantage.

7. Line of sight should, in most cases, be restricted within reasonable limits, *i.e.*, lines of long streets, except as mentioned above (No. 5), should be broken, and all views should as far as possible be framed in a suitable setting.

8. The grouping or arrangement of the principal buildings and open spaces should in all cases be specially studied with a view to securing the best effect for the whole.

9. No planning scheme can be considered as complete without a sufficiency of open spaces, and due regard must be paid to proportion and to architectural design.

The Paper has I fear been already too lengthy, but I cannot conclude without an expression of my great indebtedness to all those who by the supply of information or illustrations have helped so materially to its compilation. The subject is indeed a large one and I hope that the discussion will bring out many sides of the question not yet touched upon.

The usefulness of the Town Planning Act will depend largely upon the way in which its provisions are carried out throughout the length and breadth of the land, and it is not too much to hope that our profession will be privileged to perform its share of the great work.

Mr. L. R. VIGERS (Vice-President) said he had much pleasure in proposing a vote of thanks to Mr. Davidge for his interesting Paper. He was sure it must have taken a great deal of time to collect all the information that he had put before the Meeting. He (the speaker) had not been able personally to follow all the suggestions put forward, as he had not had the advantage of visiting the particular places, but he had no doubt that there were many present who had done so and could thoroughly appreciate the views that had been placed before them.

There was much talk at the present time about planning towns aud suburbs, and it was therefore very interesting to see reproductions of the old plans of John Evelyn and Sir Christopher Wren, and he could not help thinking it was unfortunate that Sir Christopher Wren's principle of rebuilding London had not been carried out.

Sir Christopher's mind went far beyond his own time, and the present generation would have benefited greatly if London had been rebuilt from his design. He supposed in those days, although the value of land was not anything like the value to-day, each citizen had a certain stake in the City, and it was more than could be expected that they would sacrifice so much land for the benefit of the trade of future generations.

In his opinion the general tendency of present-day legislation was too much in the direction of central control by Government Departments, borough councils and other such bodies. By the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Bill, now being considered, too much power was given to the officials of the Local Government Board, and there was no right of appeal to any authority outside that body. They were binding themselves to the

theories of men who happened to be in power, and they had no means of preventing anything which these officials might determine to enforce.

He could not help sharing the views of the writer of the Paper, that there was what he called, too much two-foot-rule reading of the Building Acts. With regard to these they had of course the great advantage of a right of appeal to the Tribunal of Appeal, but under the Town Planning Bill he was afraid that what he had described as the two-foot rule feeling would eventually permeate the Local Government Board, with the result that they might experience some difficulty in carrying out schemes for the development of the outskirts of towns.

He did not think it would affect the towns and cities themselves except to a small extent, such as where some man was fortunate enough to have a house with a certain amount of ground round it, and all his neighbours, envying his lot, wished it turned into building plots for the erection of small dwellings instead of allowing it to remain a benefit to the old town in that it provided air space, a thing which they were all anxious to create in thickly populated cities.

This Town Planning Bill gave the local authority power to construct a road right through a man's land, perhaps leaving a piece of his garden on either side of the road, paying to the owner such sum as the Local Government Board or someone appointed by them might think the value of the piece so taken. He thought that a hardship upon the landowner, who ought to have the right to take the matter before a judicial court to be determined. Hitherto it had been the custom in this country that a man should have a right of appeal to a court of law and not be governed by a Government Department.

With regard to garden cities and garden suburbs he had the greatest possible sympathy with the associations and companies that were laying out these places; he considered there was nothing more pleasing than tree-planted roads and grass verges, but he was afraid a great many people had not yet been educated up to the pitch to appreciate them. On his last visit to Letchworth he saw the typical class of man they had to deal with, a man of the working class, capable no doubt of doing a day's work as well as any one. He came out of his cottage garden, slammed the gate behind him, and walked across the grass verge, over the flower border across the road and across a flower border and grass verge on the other side, making in a direct line for the place he wanted to get to about a quarter of a mile off. A boy of about twelve years of age followed him, slamming the gate, and practically treading in his father's footsteps. This route was evidently systematically taken, as there was a defined path across the flower border and the grass verge to the other side. That was the class of man that had to be dealt with, and a large proportion of that class said to themselves: "Why should I go up "the path and turn round about ten or twelve yards "higher up when I can go straight across?"

That was his experience at Hampstead also, and he had been there a good deal, but he hoped that sort of thing would tone down as time went on. There were some very interesting and nice places at Hampstead built by a society of the tenants themselves, called the Hampstead Tenants, Limited, the houses had pretty gardens and the roads were planted with trees. He hoped that sort of thing would increase.

With regard to the architectural points raised by the Paper, he would leave them to the architectural members

of the Institution, but he considered the breaking up of the roof line of streets very beneficial from a sanitary point of view in that it allowed the air to circulate. To illustrate his point he would take Victoria Street, Westminster, where the roof line was pretty regular. There the current of air passed straight across at the top and on the pavement it was quite stagnant, whereas if the roof line had been broken up and the buildings had been of varying heights the air would have been interrupted by the higher buildings and a down draft would have been created enabling lower circulation and causing a great improvement on the street level.

He would move a cordial vote of thanks to Mr. Davidge for his interesting and instructive Paper.

Mr. Henry Lovegrove (Fellow) in seconding the resolution said he should first of all like to congratulate the President on succeeding to that position after so many years' hard work in the interests of The Institution.

It gave him pleasure to speak on that occasion as Mr. Davidge was one of the younger set of district surveyors, a most energetic one, and he deserved congratulation for constructing such an excellent Paper.

Unlike Mr. Vigers, it had been his lot at different times to see most of the cities referred to in the Paper, and on his visits he had always been struck with the magnificent open spaces and the splendid arrangement of streets. It occurred to him that this was because the land was so very much cheaper than in London, thus enabling them to lay out their cities to greater advantage. At the present day one could hardly conceive setting out to create a large town in a series of large fields like the ideal scheme of the late Sir Benjamin Richardson somewhere on the Sussex coast, a model city

perfectly laid out at the beginning. What they had to deal with to-day was the enlarging of existing cities or towns, perhaps necessitated by the opening up of manufacturies, and in too many cases he was sorry to say additions to towns seemed to resolve themselves into more or less ugly factories with tall chimneys and miles of uniform houses such as were to be seen in Lancashire and Yorkshire.

Long straight streets were economical, and, provided there were sufficient short streets, that seemed to him to be the best way of laying out the ground, thereby obviating the objection put forward by Mr. Davidge of a person traversing a long street on one side and then another long street on the other side going in a different direction. His, the speaker's, method would provide a number of good streets giving a dignified effect, would avoid the awkward angles that were often to be seen in the rear of premises and would allow of the passage of fresh air alluded to by Mr. Vigers.

As an example of good street planning he would take Bath. He thought it difficult to find anywhere in England a city which was designed and built, to use an ordinary phrase, so much at the same time; it was really wonderful to see a city designed by father and son, and carried out in such a remarkable and complete extent with buildings of a certain dignity and good material; many of the buildings being faced with stone and not, as was common now, with Fletton bricks and cheap stone dressings.

Mr. Davidge had commented upon the fact that in Germany every opportunity had been taken to improve the building line and to erect handsome buildings of good material and design. In this connection he might mention that he was in Brussels years ago when they

were laying out a dignified central street, and it seemed to him at the time that great havoc was being wrought by pulling down so many good-sized buildings, but the results had been very successful. Again, at Frankfort there was a very fine street, and at Antwerp in addition to forming good streets handsome buildings were being put up.

Mr. Davidge had told them that radiating streets and semi-circular streets produced awkwardly shaped buildings; that might be so, but the difficulty could be remedied to some extent by planning.

With regard to the quaint old squares that were sometimes to be found in towns especially on the Continent, Nuremberg and Rothenburg had been mentioned in the Paper, but Bruges and Brussels, which were equally pleasing, had been omitted.

He was of opinion that those features grew by accident, there having always been some form of square or market near which the public buildings were erected, and in many cases the streets were planned not to run into the centre of the square but at the corners, the effect being extremely good. In London they could not hope to imitate the continental cities as regards the picturesqueness of the buildings because the Building Act would come in the way, but when one looked at the old cities on the Continent one thought of the terrible havoc a fire would cause, as there were no fire walls, no party-walls, simply large projecting eaves extending down a long street.

It had always seemed to him that the formation of Cannon Street must have been a great improvement, but he could not help wishing it had been a little wider. Mr. Vigers had referred to the depressing nature of Victoria Street; the buildings were certainly very tall

and for the most part dingy with very little circulation of air, whether it ever got the sunshine he did not know as he was happy to say he did not spend much time there.

Another recent improvement was the formation of the Clerkenwell Road. Notwithstanding all efforts to the contrary it was now as crooked as Gresham Street, and did not compensate with any handsome buildings or picturesque views. Then there was Kingsway; although not finished yet, in years to come, when the building trade recovered from its present state of depression, Kingsway would make a very fine thoroughfare connecting Holborn and the Strand. While talking of Holborn he would mention that standing in Holborn looking northwards down Southampton Row, one sees on the eastern side a number of very handsome buildings in a line, but on the western side one sees first of all some ordinary buildings, and then a rather commonplace building of a furnishing company having a sort of kink in the front of it running up into a court. He supposed that was a matter of necessity and that there was some reason for preserving the court, but seen from Holborn it certainly looked odd.

Mr. Davidge had done something unusual in these days; he had blessed the dukes, he had said that many of the wonderful continental improvements were the result of the influence of the grand dukes; they had heard so much the other way recently that it was quite cheering to know that.

With regard to Mr. Davidge's scheme for a series of grand streets or boulevards connecting up the parks of London, it was no doubt very good, but what about the poor ratepayers? They were suffering already from the building of useless baths and washhouses; and he was

afraid that the high rates were driving manufacturers out of London to different parts of the country where rates were much lower and regulations as to building easier to meet. The great tendency of the present day was to take the people away from the centre of London; that was no doubt good in one way, but it was seriously altering and interfering with the trade of the centre of London. By the excellent services of tramcars, people were being enticed into the suburbs; that was very well for the suburbs, they were flourishing, but the centre of London was going to ruin.

He would like to think that some day they would have a chance somewhere near London of seeing a large piece of ground laid out with these spacious streets and excellent buildings, but he was afraid they would not be able to find anyone with money to venture on it until an unusual and unexpected demand arose.

With regard to the provisions of the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Bill mentioned by Mr. Vigers, and the unassailable position in which it put the Local Government Board with regard to the compulsory acquisition of land and other matters, he thought that if improvements were to be made, one ought to be just to those who suffered in consequence, and although they could not be given more than 10 per cent. for compulsory purchase in addition to the value of their ground, they should certainly be entitled to that, or much wrong would be done.

In conclusion he was sure all those present thanked Mr. Davidge for his valuable Paper; and he was glad to think that there were some Members of The Institution who had the time and ability to perform so useful a service for their fellow Members.

The PRESIDENT said that they had all heard a most interesting Paper from Mr. Davidge, and able speeches from Mr. Vigers and Mr. Lovegrove, but in view of the late hour and the fact that a Paper on the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Act was to be read by Mr. John Willmot in January next, it was proposed to adjourn any further discussion on Mr. Davidge's Paper till 10th January, when the two Papers would be taken together.

The vote of thanks having been put to the Meeting and carried unanimously—

Mr. DAVIDGE, in reply, thanked those Members present for the cordial vote of thanks they had given him.

Mr. WOODWARD (Fellow) said he was sure that there were many Members who wished to say something on the very interesting Paper they had heard, but he had no doubt they would all agree with the suggestion of the President, and therefore he would propose the adjournment of the discussion until the 10th January.

The Meeting then adjourned.

PAPER 360.
No. 548.

LOCAL TAXATION AND THE COMPOUND HOUSEHOLDER.

BY CHARLES PELL HALL
(PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATE OF COUNCIL).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of THE SURVEYORS' INSTITUTION *held on Monday, 6th December*, 1909.

LESLIE ROBERT VIGERS (Vice-President) in the Chair.

The steady growth of public expenditure, both Imperial and local, is admitted to be a question of grave national importance, and the enormous increase of local taxation in particular is of concern to all persons interested in real property. I therefore ask the indulgence of the Members of The Institution in order to allow me to discuss one factor which has some bearing upon the subject, namely: The desirability of the direct payment of rates by the occupiers of all rateable hereditaments, including those known at present as "compound householders."

The magnitude of local taxation is shown by the fact that the total outstanding loans of local authorities in England and Wales amounted to nearly £483,000,000 (equal to 43 per cent. of the National Debt) in 1905-6, these being the latest figures available. The public rates collected in England and Wales during that year

37th Annual Report of Local Government Board, pp. cxcii-clxxx

amounted to over £58,000,000. In 1890 the total amount collected was £28,000,000 sterling, giving an average of 19*s.* 6*d.* per head of population; in 1906, when the total collected had increased by over 100 per cent., the average per head, taking the growth of assessments and of the population which have occurred during that period of 16 years into account, had increased to 34*s.* 1*d.* In many areas the rates are already approaching 50 per cent. of the annual rental.

No doubt the necessities occasioned by the advance of civilisation and the growth of population account for a considerable proportion of this expenditure, and a large amount is of course in respect of what are known as "remunerative" undertakings, especially in urban districts. But these considerations do not weaken the argument that the expenditure of such vast sums of public money needs most careful control in order that waste and extravagance (of which we sometimes hear) may be prevented or minimised.

These figures, formidable as they are, show no signs of reduction in the future. Indeed legislation recently passed and promised points to a still further material increase in all directions. It is therefore of the highest importance that public bodies, which control and administer this huge expenditure, should be composed of persons fully qualified for their office, and that the ratepayers of all classes by whom they are elected should be induced to take an active personal interest in the selection of their representatives. There is probably no better way of accomplishing this than by insuring that all "ratepayers" are ratepayers in fact as well as in name, which is far from the case at present.

In order to form an estimate of the relative numbers of those occupiers who pay rates direct, and those who

are known as "compound householders," that is those whose rates are paid for them by the owners in the first instance, I have obtained the figures given in the current valuation lists of a typical rural union, and also of a typical county borough, both situate in the Midlands, but in different counties. The rural union comprises forty parishes, and the valuation lists give a total of 9,175 separate assessments. The number of assessments on property comprising bricks and mortar, and of a rateable value of £8 and under, and which are either compounded for already or liable to become so by order of the rating authority under Section 4 of the 1869 Act, is 4,656, or a fraction over 50 per cent. The valuation lists of the county borough comprise 11,003 separate assessments, and the number of assessments on properties containing bricks and mortar of a rateable value of £8 and under is 5,016, or just over 45 per cent. Therefore, just over 50 per cent of the total number of assessments in the rural union, and 45 per cent. in the county borough either are, or may legally be, made upon persons who do not directly pay any rates, but who are entitled to vote by virtue of their assessments at all elections for county, districts and parish councils, boards of guardians, and other bodies charged with the administration of the multitudinous public business involved in present-day local self-government. Yet these 50 per cent. of the electorate feel no immediate pecuniary effect in the fluctuation of the rates. Indeed they scarcely have reason to inquire why the rates are 4*s.*, 10*s.*, or any other amount in the £, or even whether the rates exist at all!

I do not propose to review the innumerable Acts of Parliament bearing upon assessment and rating, but, in order to trace briefly the history of the legal creation

of the "compound householder," it may be as well to recall that the Act 43 Elizabeth, c. 2 (A.D. 1601) first legalised the assessment of property for rating, and the appointment of overseers for the relief of the poor. The fundamental idea of that Act was that every inhabitant should contribute to the relief of the poor according to his ability, and every occupier paid the rates charged upon his occupation direct accordingly. It was not until the year 1820 that the Act 59, George III., c. 12, first transferred the immediate liability for payment of rates from the occupier to the owner of small tenements let on short terms.

43 Elizabeth, c. 2.

59 George III. c. 12.

Section 19 of that Act runs:—

> And whereas in many parishes, and more especially in large and populous towns, the payment of the poor's rates is greatly evaded, by reason that great numbers of houses within such parishes are let out in lodgings, or in separate apartments, or for short terms, or are let to tenants who quit their residences or become insolvent before the rates charged on them can be collected; and it hath been found that in many instances the persons letting such houses do actually charge and receive much higher rents for the same, upon the ground and expectation that the occupiers thereof cannot be effectually assessed to the poor's rates, and will not be charged with or required to pay such rates, and do thus obtain an undue advantage to themselves, and by means of the premises the other inhabitants of such parishes are unjustly compelled to pay much more than their fair and due proportion of the charges of relieving and maintaining the poor; for remedy thereof be

> it further enacted that from and after the 1st day of January, 1820, it shall be lawful for the inhabitants of any parish, in vestry assembled, and they are hereby empowered, to resolve and direct, that the owner or owners of all houses, apartments, or dwellings in such parishes, being the immediate lessor or lessors of the actual occupier or occupiers which shall respectively be let to the occupiers thereof at any rent or rate not exceeding £20, nor less than £6 by the year for any less term than one year, or on any agreement by which the rent shall be reserved or made payable at any shorter period than three months, shall be assessed to the rates for the relief of the poor.

This Act allowed a sum not exceeding 50 per cent. of the rates to be returned to the owners as commission.

13 & 14 Victoria, c. 99 (year 1850).

The next Statute which authorised the assessment of owners to the poor rate is the Act 13 and 14 Victoria, c. 99 (A.D. 1850). It recited that:—

> Whereas the collection of poor rates and highway rates assessed upon the occupiers of tenements of small annual value is expensive, difficult, and frequently impracticable, and it is expedient to make better provision for the rating of such tenements, and for the collection of such rates.

It empowered the vestry of a parish to order that the owners of tenements of an annual rateable value not exceeding £6 should be rated and assessed to the relief of the poor and the rates for the repair of highways, and provided that whilst such order was in force the owners so rated should be assessed at three-fourths of the amount at which the tenement would be liable to be

rated if the Act had not passed, and that owners giving notice in writing to the overseers of their desire to pay the rates in respect of all such tenements in the parish of which they were owners, whether occupied or not, should be assessed at a sum not being less than one half of the full rate.

In order to meet the difficulty which was occasioned by the compound householder with regard to the Parliamentary Franchise, the Act of 1850 was virtually repealed by the Representation of the People Act, 1867, so far as it applied to the rating of owners to the poor rate in parishes wholly or partly comprised in Parliamentary boroughs.

The abolition of the rating of owners in boroughs, which was the effect of the 1867 Act, was found to be attended with serious inconvenience both to those who collected and those who paid the rates, and in consequence the compulsory system was reverted to, the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act being passed in 1869.

32 & 33 Victoria, c. 41.

Sections 1 to 4 of this Act provide that the occupiers of rateable hereditaments let for terms not exceeding three months have the power to deduct from the rent due or accruing due to the owner, the amount paid by them in respect of any poor rate assessed upon such hereditament, but if the owners of the rateable hereditaments not exceeding a value of £8 (except in the Metropolis, Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham, where the limit is higher) are willing to enter into an agreement with the overseers to pay rates direct, they are allowed a commission of 25 per cent. from the amount of the rates. If the vestry (now the parish council) "order" that owners shall pay the rates instead of the occupiers 15 per cent. is allowed as an abatement, and a further 15 per cent. if

Section 3.

the owner consents to pay the full amount of rates whether the premises are occupied or not.

The 1869 Act, with similar provisions in the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, the Public Health Act, 1875, and several local Acts form the law of the "compound householder" at the present time. The effect is that a large proportion of the small tenement population do not pay their rates direct, and consequently a lamentable ignorance and indifference upon the subject prevails. The Royal Commission on the Poor Laws, who published their enormous report on the 17th of February last, repeatedly refer to "the unsatisfactory interest taken in "the election of boards of guardians" (who administer an annual expenditure of £14,000,000, year 1906-7) "to "the need of capable administrators" and to "the "indifference of the electors." "It often happens that "candidates are run by the different political associa- "tions of the district, sometimes with no other object "than to try the relative strength of the political "parties."

37th Report Local Government Board, Appendix III. p. 394.

An important debate on local taxation took place in the House of Lords on June the 24th, 1908, when Lords Onslow, St. Aldwyn, Balfour of Burleigh, Wolverhampton, Stanley of Alderley, Zouche of Haryngworth, and other statesmen, belonging to both political parties and possessing undoubted qualifications to speak with authority on the subject, deplored the want of interest shown by the electorate, and repeatedly expressed the opinion that the "compounding system" was largely responsible for their indifference.

"Hansard," June 24, 25, 1908. Vols. 190-191.

The Royal Commission on Local Taxation, which sat for three years and reported in May, 1901, refer to the "compounding system" as follows:—

Final Report of the Royal Commission on Local Taxation, 1901.

The system of compounding has been frequently

condemned on the ground that those who have the right to vote for the election or become members of local authorities entrusted with the raising and expenditure of money derived from the rates should pay rates directly themselves.

We entirely concur in this view, and we think it is most desirable that all classes of the community should as far as possible be made liable to personal payment of rates in order that they may appreciate directly the effect of economical and extravagant administration.

But however desirable in principle it might be to abolish "compounding," it is generally agreed that the practical difficulties of collecting and enforcing payment from the large numbers of the poorest classes in the large towns, who are weekly tenants and frequently moving from one tenement to another, are insuperable.

This view has been endorsed by officials of local authorities in large boroughs, and some of them have suggested that the limit of rateable value below which "compounding" is allowed should be slightly raised.

The Majority Report of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws, 1909, concludes with this instructive and impartial consideration of the "compounding system":—

A survey of the evidence upon this subject submitted to the Local Taxation Commission as well as to ourselves has convinced us of the desirability of the direct payment of rates by those who elect the local authorities, and although we are aware of the difficulties which would prevent the sudden abolition of the compounding system, we are fully persuaded that it should

be reduced to the lowest possible limits. This would involve more careful and detailed arrangements for the collection of rates, but in the long run the community would benefit not only from less extravagant administration, but from a more active and intelligent interest in local self-government on the part of the electorate.

The Earl of Onslow, as Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Central Land Association, has prepared a memorandum upon the importance of the subject, in which the following suggestions are recommended for adoption, by way of bringing the ratepayers of all classes to recognise that they have a direct pecuniary interest in keeping down the rates in their respective districts, when they elect their representatives to serve as members of the various local authorities.

(1) To discontinue the compounding system under the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, reducing the rent of the cottage tenant by the amount now payable as rates in respect of the cottage property.

(2) In the event of the local authority insisting upon putting into force Section 4 of the above Act, and compelling the landlord to adopt the compounding system, to offer the task of collecting the cottage rates to the assistant overseer of the parish, or some other competent person, who would take as his remuneration the 15 to 30 per cent. which the local authority is obliged under the Act to allow in cases where compounding is insisted upon. This practice has for many years been followed on the estates of one of the largest land owners in the north of England, where no difficulty has

been found in obtaining competent men who are ready and willing to collect small rates for such remuneration.

(3) If unable or unwilling to adopt either of the above proposals, to make use in the case of every cottage tenant of a cottager's rent-card, a sample of which is enclosed, which will indicate clearly upon the face of it in the case of all compound payments the exact proportions thereof which represent rent and rates respectively, and the additional amount payable in respect of the latter in the event of an increase in the rates levied in the parish. Such cards have been prepared by the Central Land Association showing the sum payable as rates where the rateable value of the property amounts to any round figure from £3 to £8 inclusive.

These suggestions are very valuable, and, as the law now stands, one or other of them appears to offer the only course open to the owner of property who desires that his tenants shall directly feel the incidence of the rates, and until the present law is amended, owners and their advisers may be strongly recommended to put into force either No. 1, 2, or 3, whichever may seem to be best adapted to meet their particular cases.

It must, however, be borne in mind that the circumstances in which the compound householder is met with vary very widely. For instance, the case of occupiers of small tenements on a large agricultural estate, where the accommodation is good, the rents low and changes of tenancy unfrequent, would offer little difficulty in the adoption of one or other of these suggestions. But in the case of similar occupiers in urban and also in those

rural districts where cottage property is largely in the hands of small owners, the relations between owner and occupier are on a strictly commercial basis, and this makes a wide difference when the strictly legal position is taken into consideration.

A careful review of the many problems that may arise in these latter circumstances leads to the conclusion that neither of these suggestions is entirely effective against contentious tenants who may plead the right to deduct the rates they have paid from their rent, any agreement to the contrary notwithstanding.

When the order for compulsory compounding is in force it is not easy to see how the recovery of the amount of the rate can be made from a defaulting occupier. It cannot be recovered at law as rates because the rates have already been paid to the authority by the owner, and therefore the amount of the rates can only be collected as additional rent, and this method is accompanied by the drawback that it costs the owner from 15 per cent. to 30 per cent. to collect it, a feature which would hardly commend itself to small owners.

The adoption of rent-collection cards involves a good deal of additional clerical work by the owners, and it is, I think, open to doubt whether the information conveyed by the cards upon the subject of rates would be so instructive as a call from the rate collector in person.

The inherent defect however of attempting to avoid the provisions of the 1869 Act by either of these methods is the fact that it would be impossible to obtain their universal adoption by owners, and consequently a large number of compound householders would still remain undealt with in every district.

Now all authorities appear to be practically unanimous

in the opinion that it is most desirable that all classes of the community should, as far as possible, be made liable to personal payment of rates in order that they may appreciate directly the effect of competent or incompetent, economical or extravagant administration, and the objections raised are not against this principle, but solely on account of the practical difficulty of collecting the rates from the occupiers, the loss arising from empties and irrecoverables, and the extra cost of collection. These difficulties are undoubtedly serious and were indeed described in the Report of the Local Taxation Commission (1901) as "insuperable." But I am inclined to share the doubt of the majority of the Poor Law Commissioners (1909) as to whether that description is quite justified, at any rate universally, in view of the fact that it was founded largely upon the evidence of officials directly concerned with the collection of the rates, and the possibility that such officials, familiar only with existing systems of collection, might be disposed to overestimate the difficulties involved in any change. Indeed my own experience has been that the reluctance of parish councils in rural districts to rescind the compulsory compounding order is mainly due to the objections urged upon them by the rate collectors, who are averse to any change in the system to which they are accustomed.

It must not be overlooked that under the compounding system the cost of collection is already heavily paid for by the ratepayers by the 15 to 30 per cent. allowed to owners, and that this allowance is not excessive has recently been strongly referred to by property owners in Wandsworth, where a proposal was made to reduce the allowance.

Under the House Letting and Rating (Scotland) Bill,

1909, it is for the first time proposed to introduce compounding into Scotland, and the scale of allowances contained in the Bill, which varies from 3 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. according to the class of house, has aroused strong protest north of the Tweed, and has been fully dealt with in a Memorandum issued by the Council of The Institution. Doubtless such allowances will inflict considerable loss upon owners of small house property and therefore cannot be justified, but a still greater and more important question is whether, in view of our experience in this country, the Secretary of State is well advised in introducing the system into Scotland.

There is no escape from the fact that the collection of rates from small tenement property involves heavy expense, whatever system of doing it is followed, but on the question whether it is possible to collect the rates successfully from the occupiers direct and without greater expense than the compounding system involves, the following information is interesting.

In the year 1906-7 the allowance in Poplar to owners of property under the compounding system amounted to £37,000, representing practically a rate of 1s. in the pound.

In the Borough of Lewisham the compounding system is not in operation, and in 1904 the actual losses from empties, excusals, removals, and all causes amounted to £6,000. The amount however which would have been paid or allowed to owners if the compounding system had been in force was £14,400—so that a gain of over £8,000, equal to a rate of 2*d.* in the pound, was effected by the direct collection of the rates. The rateable value was £981,025, and 48 per cent. of the total number of assessments were upon properties to which the compounding system would apply.

The senior rate collector of the Borough of Islington gave evidence to the following effect before the Poor Law Commission (1909):—

> The rateable value of the borough is £1,945,113, its population 334,991, and its rateable value £5·68 per head of population (showing that there is a very considerable amount of small property). The compounding system was abolished some years ago, and the change has resulted in a large saving to the ratepayers. According to a statement for the quarter ending Michaelmas, 1907, the loss on irrecoverables, &c., through the whole district amounted to only 8*s.* 4½*d.* per £100, or less than one-half per cent.

It is undoubtedly difficult to abolish the compounding system and substitute an effective system of direct payment, but I cannot regard the difficulty as "insuperable." The elaborate development of the machinery of local self-government supplies agencies and suggests methods which did not exist forty years ago, when the system in its present form was established. By their aid it is surely not impossible to devise some means of collecting the rates weekly, monthly, or quarterly—as the rents are collected. Collectors, male and female, could be found who at small remuneration would undertake the work. By such agents, and for a very small percentage by way of commission, an immense number of Industrial Assurance Premiums are now collected weekly from the occupiers of tenements of very low rateable value.

Since 1869 both the responsibilities and consequent expenditure of local authorities have been completely transformed; the qualifications also of their electors

have been greatly changed. In the interest of both public economy and good citizenship it seems necessary to revert to the old policy, and to associate taxation with representation inseparably and universally. I am disposed to think that a system could be devised which would accomplish this reversion, without incurring greater cost than at present, without sacrificing the interests either of owners or of occupiers, and without unduly retarding public expenditure upon necessary purposes.

No democratic system can be satisfactorily administered unless those who control its policy are directly responsible for the expenditure involved.

In conclusion, I am fully aware that there remain numerous points to which I have not alluded, and I trust that the many Members of this Institution who are recognised authorities on local self-government and rating questions will contribute their valuable experience and opinions, and thereby assist in again calling attention to a subject which is always considered a "dry" one, and perhaps for that reason is not so generally appreciated as its importance deserves. It has been my endeavour to show:—

(1) That the responsibilities and expenditure of local authorities are enormous;

(2) That local authorities are elected by the ratepayers;

(3) That apathy and indifference on the part of the ratepayers are general, and that competent authorities refer strongly to the fact;

(4) That where the compounding system is in force probably 50 per cent. of the ratepayers are not pecuniarily affected by any rise or fall of the rates, and consequently the compounding system

is one of the causes of the apathy and indifference which exist;

(5) That the principle of the incidence of all rates is that they fall upon the occupier in the first instance, that the compound householder is the only exception to that principle and that he became so, not because of principle, but for reasons of convenience of collection;

(6) That as the law stands there is no satisfactory way of enforcing the direct payment of rates by all ratepayers (occupiers);

(7) That altered conditions make it desirable that the compounding system should be abolished and the present law amended in order that the general principles of rating should be universally reverted to;

(8) That the difficulties of doing so and the risk of loss need not necessarily be so great as might be supposed.

Mr. J. H. Sabin (Professional Associate of Council), in proposing that the best thanks of the Meeting were due to Mr. Hall for having prepared the Paper which he had read, said he was not sure that they always appreciated the work which was involved in the preparation of a Paper of that kind, and he thought that thanks were particularly due to Mr. Hall in that in the midst of a busy life he should give his attention to the subject.

In making his remarks he was not going to attempt to offer any criticism upon Mr. Hall's conclusions, but he wanted rather to gather up the three aspects of the question as they appeared to him and so to assist those inter-

ested in coming to a right conclusion with regard to the subject. His first point was a practical one, namely, that the local authorities wanted to get the most money at the least expense, at any rate that should be their purpose, although he was not sure that it was always exactly in the minds of those concerned. And certainly when there were likely to be a large number of empties in any town, it was natural for the local authority, if they possibly could do so, to secure payment of the rates whether the houses were empty or occupied, and by offering the bribe of 30 per cent. reduction to the owners they could secure payment of 70 per cent. of the rates at least.

Then one had to consider the practical effect upon the owner's income. The owner desired to have the most rent at the least risk of asking too much; he wanted, if he could, to hit that happy medium which would enable him to keep all his houses occupied and so secure the full abatement which the local authorities were prepared to give him. He had usually to be very careful to fix his rent at just such a price as the occupier would be able to afford.

There were two important premises laid down in the statutes which Mr. Hall had recited. In the old Act it suggested that it had been found that in many instances the persons letting such houses actually charged and received higher rents because occupiers escaped payment of the rates; that was to say, the owner benefited by the occupier's dishonesty. Then in the latter Act it was assumed that the collection of Poor Rates and Highway Rates assessed upon the occupiers of tenements of small value, was expensive, difficult, and frequently impracticable. If both those premises might be assumed to be correct, it was clear that the owner was

bribed to an extent of 30 per cent. by this abatement in the rates which he had to pay.

Dealing with the occupier, his notion was to pay the least rent, and he (the speaker) thought it would be found as a rule that the small occupiers liked the easiest method of paying that rent, and, if they were canvassed, in most cases it would be found that where there were weekly or fortnightly payments of wages, the occupiers of such houses desired that their rent should be collected either weekly or fortnightly. Those three difficulties had to be reconciled. How was the local authority to get the most money at the least expense; the owner to get the most rent at the least risk; and the occupier to pay the least rent by the easiest method of payment. If the solution of the difficulty was to be found in the collection of rents at small intervals by means of cards such as Mr. Hall had suggested were being used in certain places, they would have the rates collected on the same basis as the rent, at weekly or fortnightly intervals, but he should like to ask whether the fluctuating rate would be sufficiently emphasised on a collection of, say, 1*s.* 2*d.* or 1*s.* 3*d.* a week to influence the occupier to take that part in the management of municipal affairs which was so desirable. He was very doubtful indeed whether the addition of a farthing, a halfpenny, or even a penny a week would force them into an excited interest in municipal affairs.

There was another question which wanted consideration—an ethical one. What was economy? They heard very much about the extravagance of local authorities, but were they quite correct in assuming that the local authorities were altogether at fault? Was it not a fact that very often a local authority would escape expenditure if it could, but that the expenditure was forced

upon them from the outside. It was not altogether economical to refuse to carry out a very necessary sewage scheme or a water supply; and he was not sure whether it was altogether economical, from an ethical point of view, for ratepayers to refuse to erect a public library; and yet those were the things which had caused the increasing rates and which were responsible for the increasing debt. Mr. Hall, he assumed, entirely excluded profitable undertakings because they, at any rate, were not responsible for an addition to the rates; but those other matters, the sewage and water and libraries, were the ideas of the more advanced ratepayers, and it was the ignorant ratepayer who objected to the increase of the rates. He happened to live under the dominion of an unenlightened borough council, which had refused to erect a library on a site which its predecessors had already provided and taken possession of; they had the site and did not know what to do with it, because, having procured it for that purpose, the Local Government Board said that they could not deal with it in any other way.

He had no hesitation in saying the refusal to grant the rate when it was first proposed was not made by the poorer classes, even when they knew they would have to pay, but it was refused by the larger ratepayers—those upon whom the heavier rate would fall. He suggested that, after all, education came from the smaller number rather than the larger, and by education he meant education with regard to sanitary matters, sewage and water supply, as well as the more ethical subject of libraries. Mr. Hall admitted that it was the occupier who was concerned in paying the rates, and he suggested that the occupier should be called upon to pay the rates, and that the present amount of the rates should be deducted from

the rent; that was to say, if a man was paying 5*s.* a week, he should pay henceforth, say, 3*s.* as rent and 2*s.* as rates, if that were the proportion; but if the present rate were two-thirds, or 70 per cent. of the rating in the pound, the deduction must not be 70 per cent., because the future payer would have to pay the full rate, and, therefore, the deduction should be the full amount of the rate, and not of the 70 per cent. The effect of that would be that the rent would be reduced by the full amount, and not by the amount of 70 per cent.; the owner, therefore, would gain nothing, while the occupier would lose nothing.

He had much pleasure in proposing that the best thanks of the Meeting be presented to Mr. Hall.

Mr. Edwin Savill (Fellow) said that he was very glad to have the privilege of seconding the vote of thanks to Mr. Hall for what he considered was one of the most important Papers that had been read in that room, dealing, as it did, with a question not only of professional interest, but of national importance. He thought it perfectly appalling that the huge sums mentioned by Mr. Hall should be managed and controlled by men who were elected by persons who had not the remotest idea how important it was to keep rates within a reasonable limit, and who did not in the least realise when they were voting for an increase in the rates that they were voting also for an increase in their rent, and were helping to drive away from the district the factories in which they earned their living.

They must all agree with Mr. Sabin that it was false economy to postpone necessary works, but he thought the changes pointed out by Mr. Hall would ensure that

those necessary works were carried out with proper economy.

He was afraid that any private effort to bring home to the occupier the fact that he was in reality paying rates could not be generally successful. Of the schemes mentioned by Mr. Hall the only one at all likely to succeed would be in the case where the rent collector collected the rates from the occupier and was paid a commission by the owner for doing so; but he did not think that could be done on small estates, especially agricultural estates, because in the country agricultural cottages were let to farmers and the occupiers did not even pay a direct rent, let alone direct rates, and it would therefore be most difficult to carry out.

There was besides the ordinary compounding system the system under which a vast number of people lived in flats and hired rooms and offices and paid no rates direct. He thought the only way of dealing with the matter was by legislation, and that nothing else could be effective. He agreed with Mr. Hall that the difficulties were not insurmountable, but the chief objection came from the Councils and rate collectors. When they knew that the cost of collection under the compounding system was in some cases almost if not quite as much as the landlord paid for the entire management of his property, they must agree that it ought not to be difficult to find a cheaper method. There were, no doubt, numbers of people who would be only too glad to do it for a much smaller percentage. It would also help greatly if a small part of the present commission were allowed to the occupiers as an inducement to pay punctually. He expected that it would be necessary to collect rates monthly, at any rate on properties of less value than a certain amount.

He agreed with Mr. Hall that there were numbers of benighted people who had not the slightest idea what rates were. He was at Bermondsey during the election talking to a man, and they got on to the question of unemployment. The man said, "What beats me is why "you do not start relief works!" He, the speaker, said that might be a good thing, but relief works had a tendency to put other people out of employment. The man enquired, "How was that?" He said people had to pay the money for relief works and they might have to limit their own expenses and cut down their own labour bill. The man replied, "That shows you do not "know what you are talking about, because nobody "pays the money, it comes out of the rates." That was a fact.

He hoped the profession would take up the subject and push it forward so that the necessary legislation might be introduced.

He had much pleasure in seconding the vote of thanks.

Mr. Harold Griffin (Fellow) said he should like to offer a few observations on the Paper. It had been his lot to read a Paper there five years before on suggested improvements in the law and practice of rating. Most of those suggestions were still pious aspirations, and he was afraid Mr. Hall's recommendations would have to wait a considerable time before they found a place on the statute book. Until they did so whatever they might recommend would be of very little avail.

It was curious to look into the history of the rating of owners, as he should prefer to call it rather than compounding; he thought the word "compounding" caused a little confusion in the way that it was used in

the Paper. He understood by compounding that the landlord agreed to pay the rates whether the houses were occupied or not, but the rating of owners was not in itself compounding. After the passing of the Act of 59 George III., which was generally known as Sturges Bourne's Act, down to 1850, over 100 local Acts were passed at the instance of rating authorities in different parts of the country adopting the provisions of that Act for the rating of owners in more or less different forms. In 1867 the Representation of the People Act was passed, the people were to be trusted to do everything, to elect their representatives, to pay the rates and all sorts of other things, and the whole of those local Acts were swept away.

Only two years afterwards things had got into such a hopeless condition that the Act of 1869 was necessary. That Act merely said that instead of having to get a local Act the local authorities were to have three methods open to them for the collection of the rates on small property, either of which they could adopt by resolution; each of those three methods was now in force in different London boroughs, so that they could see their effect. In the case of those boroughs which had adopted Section 4, the landlord in the case of houses up to £20 rateable value had no option, he had to pay the rates. He was directly rateable, and the tenant had nothing whatever to do with it, and the landlord received the discount of 15 per cent., not as a bribe, but on account of the service which he rendered to the local authority in collecting the rates for them. In some of the boroughs, if he chose to compound, that is to say, if he agreed to pay whether the houses were occupied or not, he got a further reduction.

Then there were other boroughs which worked under

Section 3; these boroughs, under certain conditions, allowed an owner to enter into an agreement to compound and to pay whether the houses were occupied or not, under which he received a discount from 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. He thought there were no boroughs now in London which went up to anything like 30 per cent.

Apparently Lewisham made the proud boast that they collected all their rates direct from the occupier. It was true there was no system of compounding, but the authority in Lewisham did not object to take the rates from the landlords. There were thousands of houses in Lewisham where the landlord paid the rates as a matter of course, although, as between himself and the authority, there was no legal obligation for him to do so.

The Act of 1869 interposed another very important provision. It said that where a house or a tenement was let for a term not exceeding three months, whether the landlord agreed with the tenant or not that the latter was to pay the rates, the tenant could turn round upon the landlord and deduct the rates from the rent. Although the landlord might have said to him, "I am letting a house to you at a rent which "is calculated on the basis that you are to pay the "rates," the first time the tenant was called upon to pay he could deduct the amount from the rent, because any contract to the contrary was void. In these circumstances the direct payment of rates became more or less of a farce in houses up to £20 rateable value in London. Then they knew that in practice intending tenants of small houses almost always required that their rent should include the rates, a custom which was becoming more common every day. They had the

example of people who lived in flats, and who never under any circumstances paid the rates. They would object to do so. That example had proved very contagious, and tenants were more and more insisting that the rents should include the rates. That was very greatly because they thought there was some mystery about rates. They did not understand the incidence of rates and taxes; but they knew that they fluctuated whereas if they agreed at an inclusive rent they knew exactly what they had to pay, and that any fluctuation had to be borne by the landlord.

There had been some recent cases, which were very interesting, on this question. Some of them had been reported in *Professional Notes.* In Islington—which was a borough where more than in any borough in England the officials had remarkable ingenuity in finding screws to turn on the unfortunate landlord—instead of continuing the practice of rating tenements separately where a house was let in two or more tenements, they decided they would no longer rate them separately so that the landlord could deduct the proportion of empties in the case of each tenement, and they said that Section 7 of the Representation of the People Act, 1867, was still in force, although it had been looked upon as obsolete, and they attempted to rate the owners. There was a case of *Davis* v. *Wallis,* which went to the Divisional Court, in which the owner was successful, the Lord Chief Justice holding that practically that section was obsolete. Islington were not satisfied, and they obtained another opportunity in the case of *Hales and another* v. *Islington,* which went to the Court of Appeal. The Court of Appeal overruled the decision of the Divisional Court in *Davis* v. *Wallis,* and practically decided that Section 7 was in force, and

in the case of any house wholly let out in apartments or lodgings the landlord must pay, and must pay in full, with no allowance for empties if any part of the house remained occupied. Then only last week there was another case at Hackney, that of *Griggs* v. *Stevens*, in which it had been attempted to show that the definition "apartments or lodgings" did not apply where houses were built and intended to be let and occupied as two flats, although they were not entirely self-contained; that was to say, they had the same entrance, but with separate accommodation for each family, one on the ground floor and one on the upper floor. The Lord Chief Justice, before whom that case came in the Divisional Court, held that the decision in the case of *Hales* v. *Islington* was sufficiently wide to cover those cases; so that there would be another large class of cases in which the landlord would be rated whether he liked it or not, and would have to pay in full without any allowance or deduction whatever. All those things, he thought, went to show that an improvement in the law was very necessary. He believed that the experiment of collecting rates weekly had been tried in more than one borough in the north of England, and there did not seem to be any insuperable reason why that system should not be adopted generally in the case of weekly tenancies, because tenants would probably be quite willing to pay the rates by weekly instalments, and in the majority of cases the authorities would get the rates without any difficulty, and with very little loss if they were collected in the same way as the rent was collected. Weekly tenants had now got quite used to weekly calls, not only for rent but for the widespread system of insurance; in almost every house in London that was let on a weekly tenancy there was some kind of

insurance system in vogue which was collected weekly, and it would be quite possible for the rates to be collected in that way. The difficulty in the way of a card to show the amount collected weekly representing the rent and the rates, was that it was all very well so long as the excellent tenant went on paying his rent regularly, but the system broke down directly he missed a week and began paying up a shilling or two and then going back another week and then paying off half a week. It was not possible to make calculations at the door for all those infinitesimal payments. Of course it could be shown on the top of the card or book how much per annum the rates amounted to, but apparently that was not what was intended.

He thought they were very much indebted to Mr. Hall for bringing the subject forward, and if it were possible for the Members of that Institution to bring any influence to bear upon Parliament in order to get these ideas and recommendations embodied in legislation, they would all be extremely glad.

Mr. C. H. Dinwiddy (Fellow) said he thought the majority and perhaps practically the whole of the Members would agree with the general idea of Mr. Hall's Paper. He did not wish to speak on that point but on the third suggestion of Lord Onslow that the rent should be split up between rates and rent, and that the total should fluctuate with the rates. He thought that seemed a very sound idea, but, without legislation behind it, the impossibility of persuading landlords to carry it out uniformly and the difficulty of tenants getting into arrears and wanting the rates to go over to the next week would be very serious, and he thought

practically impossible to overcome unless one could get the suggestion made compulsory by Act of Parliament.

Then the incidence of the tax had hardly been touched upon in the Paper, but he thought the heading "Local Taxation and the Compound Householder" would cover it. He wished to give a few figures showing the effect of compounding on the borough councils in London. He had an example in the borough of Greenwich of a house assessed at the gross value of £20, rateable value £16. The borough council's total rate came to 7*s.* 8*d.* in the £, and 7*s.* 8*d.* in the £ on £16 would produce £6 2*s.* 8*d.* They allowed 20 per cent. commission for compounding and for the collection of the rate, which was £1 4*s.* 7*d.*, leaving the net amount received £4 18*s.* 1*d.* The Borough Council had to pay on precept to the London County Council, the Metropolitan Asylums Board, the Police District and the Board of Guardians on the total rateable value of the union, therefore they had to pay those charges on the full £16, not on the £16 less 20 per cent., and the total of those precepts came to 5*s.* 6¼*d.* on a rateable value of £16 which came to £4 8*s.* 4*d.* Then in addition to that there was the equalisation of rates fund, another 6*d.* on £16, making 8*s.* or a total payment of £4 16*s.* 4*d.* Thus, the total receipt being £4 18*s.* 1*d.*, the total retained by the borough council was 1*s.* 9*d.* He was certain that that was not realised by the borough council themselves or by other people. The actual rate of the borough council was 2*s.* 1¾*d.*, and that, on a £16 rateable value less 20 per cent. commission, would produce £1 7*s.* 6*d.*, while they got 1*s.* 9*d.* The effect of that, when they came to a place like Poplar, where, as Mr. Hall said, it cost them £37,000 a year for compounding, was very serious indeed, and it hit the poor districts of London far heavier

than it did the rich districts. Out of that 1*s.* 9*d.* there was the cost of roads, maintenance, cleansing, lighting, dust destruction, baths, &c., to be provided, in fact there were 18 columns altogether in the Poor Law returns. He thought there was hardly any class of property which cost more for local authorities to keep going than these weekly properties, and they spent at least £1 7*s.* 6*d.* on property for which they got 1*s.* 9*d.*

Mr. Henry Lovegrove (Fellow) said that he had received the Paper through the kindness of their secretary, and he thought it a very important contribution to their *Transactions.* The few remarks that he had to make had been practically covered by Mr. Savill, who had spoken very ably on the subject.

The question of rates was a most important one in the county of London, and especially at the present time when weekly property seemed going fast to the bad, that class of property being an important factor in connection with rates. If in all cases the tenants of weekly property and flats paid rates direct they would possibly take more interest in elections. A few weeks since little more than 50 per cent. of the electors of London voted in connection with the borough council elections, and it was a remarkable thing that the majority of those who voted were people who paid their rates indirectly through landlords.

Many people had referred to the ease with which rates could be obtained from the tenants, but he was not quite so sure. He thought if they were to offer a lower rate of remuneration to collectors, they would find officials who were quite unfit to represent the borough councils in the collection of the rates. In London it was a most difficult question.

There were many other points which might be argued if one had time for preparation. It was important to keep in mind the large amount collected for rates in London, and to consider in detail how these various amounts were allotted, and how they were spent. He quite agreed with Mr. Savill's remarks about public buildings. In many cases in London there was an excessive expenditure by borough councils on some of their erections, especially baths and wash-houses, where they might have saved at least one-third of the cost; occasionally it was gross extravagance. As regards public libraries very great expenditure had been incurred, and they were not all the blessings they seemed to be, for in these days books were extremely cheap, besides which he was told that the most frequent visitors to public libraries were loafers and betting men. Indeed, so serious was the attendance of betting men that in certain districts they blacked over or cut out the betting news. Besides, papers being so cheap, people did not need to go to public libraries to see a newspaper. Many people, too, who could afford to go to Mudies' to get out books went to public libraries. He agreed on the whole that something ought to be done to make the matter of rate collecting better and simpler than it was.

Mr. Charles Watkins (Visitor) said that they knew that for a very long period occupiers alone were assessable, and it was by an Act of Parliament in 1869 that owners first had the option of paying instead of occupiers. Since that time there had been a very general opinion that if it were possible they should revert to the old style of requiring occupiers to pay their rates. That was, as had been said, a very difficult point, and he had

for a long period taken great interest in that subject and attended many meetings dealing with it.

It was not long since he had interviewed the Members of Parliament who had brought in a Bill on that subject, but in discussing it, it was found almost impracticable to bring such a thing about unless there were a specific legislative enactment whereby the non-occupying owner should not pay rates at all; in other words to make it compulsory upon the occupier to pay the rates direct, because, as had been very forcibly stated by Mr. Griffin, the small occupiers were very loth to pay rates and taxes. He knew that from experience. What was said was: "If we pay a certain rent which "comprises everything, we know how to adjust our ways "and means, but when we have to face a varying "account, we hardly know where we stand." Among small occupiers there was great force in that, and it was a very difficult matter to face. Experiments had been tried, as suggested in the Paper, in order to give occupying tenants a greater interest in and a greater knowledge of local affairs; one experiment was the setting out in rent-books what proportion was rent and what proportion was rates and taxes. That experiment, to his own knowledge, had been tried in a number of instances, but in every case it had failed; first from the immense amount of book-keeping it entailed, and secondly (and that was the principal part) the tenants soon lost interest in those figures. When an occupying tenant got a rate paper from a local authority he knew that if he did not pay his goods would be seized, but it was a very different thing when a landlord said: "See my "books, see these figures; and see what I have to pay in "rates out of the rent you pay." A great many tenants

took that with a little bit of salt; but this was not the case when the rate collector came round.

Reference had been made in the Paper, and an extremely valuable Paper it was and he had been very much interested in it, to the parishes of Lewisham and Islington. He believed it was true generally that local authorities, who had competent collectors and allowed no compounding at all, could collect at a cheaper rate than even 15 per cent. He believed that the whole object of bringing in a compounding Act was to make it easier for the local authority to collect. They knew that rents were collected weekly in small sums, and there was no reason why the rates should not be collected in small sums also and collected more successfully than rent. Local authorities had as great if not greater powers for collecting their local rates than a landlord had for collecting his rent.

Apart from all that, he thought that if it were possible to bring about a legislative enactment whereby every occupier should be compelled to pay rates direct it would give a greater interest in local affairs, he would not say to all occupiers, but to the majority of occupiers. In his experience of a neighbourhood of small occupiers he had found that they did not know how the rates were made up, they seldom if ever saw a demand note and took little or no interest in the question. Interest would be aroused in them if either quarterly or monthly they got a demand note showing how the money was expended, and he thought it would be a very good thing if the object of the Paper, namely that occupiers should pay rates direct, could be brought about. He had much pleasure in supporting the vote of thanks for the very valuable Paper.

Mr. W. A. HAVILAND (Visitor) said he wished to thank the Members of The Institution very much for having given him an opportunity of listening to Mr. Hall's interesting Paper and to the instructive discussion upon it. Allusion had been made in the Paper to the keen interest taken in this subject by the Central Land Association with which he was connected, and he did not wish to appear to say anything at all against the scheme which his association was advocating so strongly, but he always thought that at a meeting of business men it was sounder and wiser to consider the difficulties and disadvantages of a scheme rather than to dwell entirely upon the advantages.

There were two subjects to which he wished briefly to call attention. Mr. Hall in summing up his Paper said: "In the interests of both public economy and "good citizenship, it seems necessary to revert to the old "policy and to associate taxation with representation "inseparably and universally." So far as good citizenship was concerned, there could be no question but that it was greatly to the advantage of the country that every voter should take the keenest interest in local government, but he ventured to doubt whether the scheme if carried out was going to tend very much towards public economy. He hoped he should not be thought egotistic in saying that he had taken very great interest in public work and local government for a great number of years, and he did not hesitate to say that many people made a mistake when they thought an increase in the rates was due entirely to the extravagance of the spending authorities. The extravagance was pressed upon them from above. He was sure of that and he thought people should realise it more than they did, and if there were failure on the part of the

spending authorities and on the part of the representatives of the ratepayers on those spending authorities, it was simply due to an inability to resist the pressure which was put upon them. He ventured to point out that a very large amount of the rates went towards the amelioration of the position of the working man, and he thought if the working man came to consider it and weigh it up he would not very much mind paying the extra shilling or so per quarter on his rates in order to continue to have that money spent upon him or to have more spent upon him and his fraternity. He thought the more the working man thought about it the more he would be inclined to say, "Let us have the rates raised, "and let us working people have the benefit of those "rates."

The other point he wished to make was, that before a reform of this sort could be inaugurated in agricultural districts, one had to get over what he thought was a very much greater evil, viz., the letting of cottages at merely nominal rents. Throughout almost all the agricultural districts in England, cottages were let at rents of 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a week, something like £5 or £6 a year, a rent which included interest on cottages which had cost £200 at the least, and the rates. He believed that that fact stood in the way of any reform of this sort and of any scheme for getting better or more cottages throughout the country districts. Cottagers did not know and did not care what was paid so long as the rents were kept at such a low rate as that; the rent was merely nominal, and they must get rid of that before they could get any improvement.

He felt quite certain that if this reform were to be carried out it must be done by legislation. Any owner of property who attempted to take isolated action would

make himself so unpopular in the country districts that he would never be able to face it; if it were to be done at all it must be done by concerted action or by the legislature.

Mr. J. J. Done (Fellow) said he wanted to make one observation before dealing with the Paper, and that was that some few years ago the question of compounding in respect of allotments was made, and although he had had a good many years' experience it was only within the last ten years that that question had been raised, and he was very much surprised to find great opposition on the part of the rating authorities. He was told by many of them that they had no statutory power to make a remission in the case of allotments, and that it could not be done. His answer to that was that if they could not do it they could collect the rates from the allotment holders, and he would be very happy to supply them with their names and addresses. The result was that in about twelve months, notwithstanding the absence of statutory power, in several cases the rating authority made an allowance. He raised the question because having regard to the controversy that he had had with the rating authorities, it appeared to him strange that land agents generally—certainly in the districts with which he was concerned—had not raised this question before, and he threw out the hint that any one who had to do with allotments was as much entitled to the benefits of the compounding allowance as he was on other kinds of property.

The subject of the Paper was first brought prominently to his notice by the issue of Lord Onslow's circular. As a member of the Land Agents' Society he received this circular asking his firm if they would adopt the prin-

ciple set out of having a separate apportionment of the rent and rates. He gave the matter his consideration, and came to the conclusion that the thing would not work and never took any further trouble with it. His reasons for arriving at that conclusion had been stated by several of the speakers that evening; the difficulty in collection, and so on. When one came to think of what the effect would be on a great many of the cottages which he had to deal with, let not at £5 a year but at 1*s.* a week, the difficulties would be obvious. These cottages were let at £2 12*s.* a year, and many of them were thatched and very comfortable. The rent was not an economic rent at all, it was only an acknowledgment that the cottage did not belong to the tenant. That was all it could be called, because after the rates had been paid and the thatching bill (which he found on an average of 30 years came to 40 per cent. of the rent) had been settled, and after the repairs had been paid for, it was a fact that the people who paid 1*s.* a week not only lived rent free, but had the advantage of the services of an experienced agent to come round and keep their property in repair and their house as comfortable as possible.

What would be the result of making these people pay the rates direct? The rates on a cottage of that kind would come in the country districts to about 5*s.* a year; he had not taken the trouble to inquire exactly as he did not think it was germane to the present issue, but say 5*s.* a year. It had been very well said that the difficulty in this question was not that the poor people voted for expenditure, but it was the poor people's patrons, who were always urging that there should be more expenditure on their behalf. Nor could he conceive any economising that could have the effect of making

the difference between 5*s.*, or whatever the rate might be that they would now pay, and what they would have to pay under any new system, substantial enough to make them care one snap of the fingers about it. In towns the circumstances were different, because there the rent was an economic rent, and the rates were in proportion.

It was sometimes said that the direct payment of rates would make the people take more interest in municipal affairs, but as one of the speakers had admirably pointed out, it was not the compound ratepayers, it was not the people who lived in small tenements who did not vote, the trouble was with the people of a better class and unfortunately the most highly-rated people in the parish. They were the people with whom they had the utmost difficulty, especially in London, in getting them to take an interest in parochial affairs.

There was one other point on which he was afraid he entirely disagreed with almost everyone who had spoken. Everyone said, "this is a desirable reform." He might be wrong, and probably was, but he did not think it was a desirable reform and the reason that he mistrusted it was this; it was said, "If you make these people "pay the rates you will make them take an interest in "the economic management of the affairs of their parish "much more than they do at the present time." One of two things would arise. If they had to pay the rates they would either feel it or they would not. If they did not feel it all the trouble had been taken absolutely for nothing. If they did feel it, they were the predominant voting body, and it would not be very long before the demagogue would see his chance and would preach a doctrine, which had already found acceptance from both parties in this country, namely that a

man should not pay in arithmetical proportion to his ways and means, but that the more he had the more he should pay, in a sort of geometrical proportion. They might depend upon it, if they got the rates brought home to these people in such a way and to such an extent that they felt it, the next thing would be that they would say: "That man in that big house does not pay "anything like to the same extent as I do because he "can write a cheque and not feel it, and I have to pay "my 5*s.* which is a very serious matter to me," and then the question of the differentiating of the rates would be brought forward and become law in the same way as the differentiation of taxes had done. He wished to take those two points and put his opinion on record that if this reform ever took place he greatly doubted whether landlords would have any cause to congratulate themselves upon it, whether indeed the converse would not be the case.

Mr. R. W. Harper (Associate) said that he should not like anybody to think that because he sat in the vicinity of Mr. Done he had been led to adopt his views; he expressed his deep dissent from what Mr. Done had said. He thought they should test these things and try and bring them home to themselves by thinking what would happen in their own cases. He had been a tenant of the Inner Temple for 27 or 28 years, and he had been, therefore, a ratepayer in the City, but what rates he had paid he had not the remotest idea. He should not have known on what basis the premises were rated but for the fact that by some curious anomally the Police Rate was left out and he had to pay that small rate every year. As a consequence, in his individual capacity he had never felt any interest in City affairs and never

voted at any of the wardmotes except one, when he happened to know the candidate who had pressed him very much to do so.

That was pretty much the state of things that happened with tenants of small urban properties who did not directly pay the rates. The landlord's rent collector was looked upon as a bugbear and a nuisance, but the tenants knew nothing of the rate collector, and the landlord's grievance did not come home to them. The tenants imagined that they were simply paying rent, and that was why they heard so much agitation about rent; they did not understand that a large proportion of that rent went for rates. If every time the collector called he was bound by law to hand the tenant a card showing the proportion that was being received for rent and the proportion that was being received for rates, that would bring it home to him.

He was quite unable to understand the argument of the gentlemen who said there would be difficulty in securing proper people to collect rates. It seemed to him that the person who was good enough to collect the rent for the landlord, and, indirectly, the rates at the present time would be good enough to be employed directly by the local authority to receive the rates for them, and so a dual collection might be made by one person collecting at the same time for the two separate purposes.

The present system, he thought, had led to the difficulties they had in London. It was a striking illustration of what was prevalent among the more educated classes where there was no direct pecuniary interest involved in the matter, where they did not know and did not appreciate the importance of an issue because it was not brought home to their pockets. In the same

way it was idle to say that working men would vote for an increase of local expenditure on the notion that "Here are the rates, let us have something more out of "them." The proportion of working men directly employed by local authorities as compared with the whole number was very small indeed. They would see that what went on in some places was practically setting up a privileged class of workmen above themselves, and that it was being done largely at their own expense. There would then be an effective check imposed upon any extravagance in that direction.

Another thing was that many of the people who were elected to local authorities had no practical knowledge of the details of employment in the particular branches of the trade in which they had to employ workmen.

In regard to expenditure he was sorry to find himself in disagreement with Mr. Sabin in what he said. It seemed to him that in the case he put of land taken for a public library, one must assume they had had the voice of the ratepayers who voted. Mr. Sabin's argument, as he understood it, was that if these people who had been compounded for could have been induced to vote the library would have been erected, and there would have been increased expenditure. He personally very much doubted that. It seemed to him, if it were true, it was merely an argument that in the present condition of things they had not got the true expression of the opinion of the electorate, and, therefore, as a matter of policy, it wanted altering. He did not agree with Mr. Sabin in the conclusion which he deduced from those facts, but if that would be the effect it was one which they ought to desire, because what they aimed at in local government, as in other matters, was to get a

free expression of the opinion of those who were actually responsible pecuniarily for what took place. They wanted those who paid the piper to call the tune. If in calling the tune they called something which did not agree with their views, they should, notwithstanding, submit to that result, but he believed that the tune would be much more carefully and prudently selected when the actual ratepayer realised the price he had to pay for it.

The vote of thanks having been put to the Meeting and carried unanimously—

Mr. HALL in reply said he thanked the Chairman and the meeting very much for the kind way in which the vote of thanks for his Paper had been received, and he was pleased to find such interest shown in the subject. Mr. Sabin had kindly said the remarks he made were not intended as hostile criticism, and there had been very little real criticism for him to reply to. Many of the points alluded to by the speakers he thought were more or less referred to in various paragraphs in his Paper. He gathered Mr. Sabin rather dreaded compelling small occupiers to pay the rates, because he thought that would put back the clock as regards works of a public and necessary nature such as water supply, sewerage, and so on, which everybody agreed were necessary in modern times. That was not the kind of expenditure that he, or those who agreed with him on this subject, wished to stop. What they wanted was that when sewerage works, or water supply, or libraries were decided upon they should be carried out with due regard to economy and with proper supervision, and that could best be ensured by the voters selecting

men who would look after it. He thought also that the views of owners of property—the men who paid the rates—should be considered as well as the preference of the occupiers.

He was extremely obliged to Mr. Dinwiddy for his valuable figures which emphasised his views on the subject of the present extravagance in the matter of ratepaying; a good deal of money leaked away even now.

With regard to the Central Land Association and their recommendations, he would like to remind the meeting that those views were not his own. He put forward the adoption of rent-collecting cards as one of the solutions proposed by the Central Land Association, and he recommended that as being better than nothing, but he quite agreed that it had all the drawbacks to which the speakers had referred. With regard to the question as to whether any economy would result from the direct payment of rates, his own experience was that there was in the rural districts an enormous amount of ignorance as to what the rates really were, where they came from, what they were paid for, and as matters stood there was very little reason for anybody to enquire.

In one parish on a property which he managed, there was a village of some 300 inhabitants, which consisted of one long row of houses. When the Parish Councils Act came into force they elected a progressive council, and the parish council proceeded to look up all their powers of expenditure and voted that they should all be adopted forthwith. They found one of their powers was the lighting of streets, so they carried a resolution that they should light the street. This was estimated to cost £50 a year, but they plumped for it and other projects. In that parish they had the voluntary compounding

system in force; that is the system under Section 3 of the 1869 Act in which the owner paid the rates direct and got 25 per cent. reduction. He, the speaker, went to his chief and told him that progression was in force and that he had better discontinue compounding. He discontinued compounding and they discontinued lighting, and they had heard no more of it. Those were houses assessed at about 50*s.* a year.

The rate collector in that parish now told him that his life, when an increase of about 2d. in the quarter's payment was made, was like that of a toad under a harrow. An old woman would come round, and produce the last quarter's demand note and say: "What is this "for?" He would explain, "Your husband votes for this, "that and the other, and this is the little bill, and if "he does not take care he will have a larger one on the "next occasion." He could assure them that economy did result even if it were a question of postponing a heroic system of lighting and follies of that description.

Then they must remember there was the question of poor relief. The occupiers looked them up pretty sharply if they had to pay the rate for it; but, on the other hand, if they did not pay the rate, why should not Dick, Tom, or Harry have another bob a week? It did not matter, somebody else paid. But since the inhabitants of the village he had referred to had paid their rates direct, there was a good deal of talk if Tom Jones got 5*s.* instead of 4*s.* It made a great difference in the interest which they took in that respect.

As to Mr. Done, he was afraid he did not agree with him, as they would gather from his Paper and his remarks. Mr. Done rather dreaded the consequences of occupiers paying the rates, because he thought ultimately landlords would have to pay a bigger share. They

were told Socialism was advancing, and he supposed even bigger shares would be taken from them then, and it would not be a paltry matter of the division of the rates; but Socialism had not yet won its way; he did not think they need seriously take it into account, and meanwhile he was certain that they had better do all they could to induce the ratepayers to understand what ratepaying was.

He again thanked them for their kind reception of his Paper.

Paper 361.
No. 549.

HOUSING, TOWN PLANNING, &c., ACT, 1909.

By JOHN WILLMOT (Fellow).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, January 10th*, 1910.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

The Housing, Town Planning, &c., Act of last Session is a new departure in legislature and is a great step in making better provision for housing reform by giving local authorities a more effective control over their districts. It must be admitted on all hands that such reform is urgently required, and should result in bringing about an improvement in the health and prosperity of the community.

The Council of The Institution have already expressed their sympathy with the President of the Local Government Board in his endeavour to provide machinery for the proper housing of the working classes wherever necessary, and for substituting order in place of the chaos which at present exists in connection with the development of building areas near towns, and I am

quite sure we all most heartily endorse the Council's statement that the objects of the Act will receive the cordial support of The Institution. Surveyors as a body are interested in all matters of local government, and will, I am sure, give their cordial assistance and support to the principles of the Act.

In endeavouring to bring before The Institution its main provisions, I find I have undertaken a more difficult task than I anticipated. The complexity of the subject is enhanced by the references in the Act to a number of other Acts of Parliament which tend to confuse a layman, and may, I fear, have led me into making statements which may not correctly interpret the Act. I must, therefore, crave the indulgence of the Members of The Institution.

As the practical work in connection with the carrying out of all matters connected with the housing of the working classes and town planning will be largely undertaken by surveyors, it is of the greatest importance that the powers under which their duties will have to be performed, should be set out so as to be readily followed and understood; it is to be hoped, therefore, that a consolidating measure may be passed at an early date.

It will probably be most convenient if I summarise the various Parts of the Act and then draw attention to any points which come within our province and can be usefully discussed. I have therefore drawn up a summary of the various sections under the Four Parts of the Act, and have made my comments on each Part in turn. As the summaries have to deal with matter contained in 92 sections and 6 schedules, they are necessarily long, and I fear will prove wearisome, but I have found it difficult to curtail them without omitting essential matter.

PART I.

Housing of the Working Classes.

Facilities for Acquisition of Lands and other purposes of the Housing Acts.

Sections 1 to 9.

Part III. of the Housing of Working Classes Act, 1890, is to take effect in every urban or rural district without adoption, and a local authority may be authorised to purchase land compulsorily for the purposes of this Part of the Act by means of an Order confirmed by the Local Government Board in accordance with the provisions set out in the First Schedule to the Act.

The procedure therein set out is substituted for the procedure under Section 176 of the Public Health Act of 1875, and may be summarised as follows :—

On the submission to the Local Government Board by a local authority of an Order putting in force the provisions of the Lands Clauses Act with respect to the compulsory purchase of land, the Board may confirm the Order with or without modifications; when it is confirmed it is to be final and to have effect as if enacted in the Act.

In determining the amount of any disputed compensation no additional allowance is to be made for the purchase being compulsory.

The Order is to be in the form prescribed by the Board and shall contain such provisions as the Board may prescribe for the purpose of carrying it into effect and of protecting the local authority and the persons interested, and shall incorporate the Lands Clauses Acts (except Section 127 of the Act of 1845, which provides for the sale of surplus lands, and Sections 77 to 85 of the

Railway Clauses Consolidation Act, 1845, which refer to the reservation and working of mines by landowners), but subject to the modification that any question of disputed compensation shall be determined by a single arbitrator appointed by the Board.

The Order is to be published by the local authority, and notice must be given both in the locality and to the owners, lessees, and occupiers of the land.

If within the prescribed period no objection to the Order is presented to the Board by a person interested in the land, or if every objection has been withdrawn, the Board shall without further inquiry confirm the Order, but if otherwise the Board shall hold a public inquiry at which such other persons as the person holding the inquiry thinks fit to allow may appear and be heard.

Where land to be acquired is situate in London or a borough or urban district the Board shall appoint an impartial person not in the employment of any Government Department to hold the inquiry, and he shall have all the powers of an Inspector of the Board. His report is to deal with the matters set out in paragraph 7 of the schedule. If the Board confirms the Order in opposition to his report, or without such modifications as he may suggest, it shall be provisional only until confirmed by Parliament.

Where the land is not urban, *i.e.*, in rural districts, it would seem that the Board are under no restriction in the appointment of a person to hold the inquiry, but might nominate one of their own officials for that purpose; nor need they proceed by Provisional Order if, in the face of an adverse report, they decide in favour of compulsory acquisition.

The arbitrator appointed by the Board shall as far

as practicable act on his own knowledge and experience in assessing compensation, and shall hear the parties authorised to appear or their agents, but except in cases where the Board otherwise direct shall not hear counsel or expert witnesses.

The Board may, with the concurrence of the Lord Chancellor, fix a scale of costs applicable to an arbitration, and an arbitrator may determine the amount of costs or disallow any costs which he considers to have been incurred unnecessarily.

The remuneration of an arbitrator is to be fixed by the Board.

A local authority may also acquire land by agreement for the purposes of Part III. of the 1890 Act, notwithstanding that it is not immediately required.

The Public Works Loan Commissioners are empowered to lend to the local authority for any purposes of the Housing Acts at the minimum rate allowed for loans out of the Local Loans Fund, and on the recommendation of the Board the period for which the loan is made may exceed the usual period allowed, but it is not to exceed the period recommended by the Board, nor in any case 80 years. Where a loan is made under Section 67, Subsection 2 (D) of the principal Act to a Public Utility Society as therein defined, the amount of such loan may amount to two-thirds of the value of the property instead of one moiety.

A local authority in exercising their powers under Part III. of the 1890 Act may themselves construct streets on any land acquired by them for the purposes of the Act, or contribute towards the cost of the construction of such streets on any such land by any other persons on the condition that the streets are dedicated to the public.

Improvements on which capital moneys under the Settled Land Act, 1882, may be expended are to include the provision of houses for the working-classes, either by means of building new houses or by reconstructing, enlarging or improving existing houses, providing the works in the opinion of the Court are not injurious to the estate or are agreed to by the tenant for life and the trustees of the settlement.

Powers of enforcing Execution of Housing Acts.

Sections 10 to 13.

Where complaint is made to the Board by a county council, a parish council or parish meeting, or by four householders of the district that a local authority has failed to exercise their powers under Part II. or III. of the principal Act, the Board may cause a public local inquiry to be held, and should they then be satisfied that there has been such a failure, they may declare the authority to be in default and may make an order upon them to carry out such works and do such things as they may specify. Before deciding that a local authority has failed to exercise their powers under Part III. of the principal Act, the Board have to satisfy themselves as to the necessity for further accommodation, the probability that it will not be otherwise provided, and the other circumstances of the case, and also whether, having regard to the charge that will fall upon the rates, it is prudent for the local authority to provide the accommodation. Where an order made under this section is not complied with by the local authority, the Board may, with the consent of the county council, direct the county council to carry out the work or do the things mentioned in the original order, and for that purpose may

apply the provisions of the Housing Act or Section 63 of the Local Government Act, 1894, with such modifications as may be necessary. An order made by the Board under this section is to be laid before both Houses of Parliament as soon as may be after it is made, and may be enforced by mandamus.

Where it appears to the Board that the local authority has failed to carry out an improvement scheme under Part I. of the principal Act, or to give effect to any order regarding an obstructive building, or to a reconstruction scheme under Part II. of the Act, or failed to have an inspection of their district made as required by the Act, the Board may order the local authority to do what is necessary within a specified time, and the order may be enforced by mandamus.

Where complaint is made to the council of a county, the council may cause a local inquiry to be held, and if they are then satisfied that the rural district council have failed to exercise their powers under Part III. of the principal Act, the county council may transfer the powers of the district council under the Act to themselves.

Where the council of a county are of opinion that for any reason it is expedient for the council to exercise in a rural district any of the powers of a local inquiry under Part III. of the Act, the council may, after due notice to the district council, apply to the Board for an Order conferring such powers on them, and the Board may confer on the county council all or any of the powers of a local authority under Part III. of the Act. The county council may transfer any works they have executed in the district under the Order of the Local Government Board to the district council on such terms and conditions as may be agreed between them.

Contracts by Landlords.

Sections 14 to 16.

In any contract made after the passing of the Act for letting a dwelling-house at a rent not exceeding in London £40 a year, in a borough or urban district with a population of 50,000 or upwards £26 a year, and elsewhere £16 a year, there shall be implied a condition that the house is in all respects reasonably fit for human habitation, and that it will be so kept by the landlord during the occupation. This condition does not apply in cases where the house is let for a term of not less than three years on the condition that it is put in repair by the lessee, providing the lease cannot be determined at the option of either party before the expiration of the term.

The landlord or the local authority, or any person authorised by him, on giving 24 hours' notice may enter a house to view its state and condition. Should it appear to the local authority within the meaning of Part II. of the principal Act that the undertaking as to keeping the premises reasonably fit for habitation is not complied with, the authority shall, if a closing order is not made in respect of the house, require the landlord to execute such works as they may specify as necessary to put the house into order. The landlord may then within 21 days after receipt of the notice give notice to the local authority of his intention to close the house. Should, however, the notice not be complied with, and the landlord not give notice of his intention to close the house, the authority may do the necessary work and recover the expenses from the landlord as a civil debt or by annual instalments extending over not more than five years with interest thereon. The landlord may appeal

to the Local Government Board against the notice requiring him to execute works and against a demand for the recovery of expenses, and no proceeding shall be taken against him while the appeal is pending.

The power of making and enforcing by-laws in respect of lodging-houses is increased and may be extended to the making of by-laws imposing any duty—within the meaning of the Public Health Acts and involving the execution of work—upon the owner in addition to or in substitution for any other person having an interest in the premises. For the purpose of discharging any duty so imposed power is given to an owner to enter on the premises, and should he fail to execute the work the local authority may do so after giving 21 days' notice, and may recover the costs and expenses.

Amendment of Procedure for Closing Orders and Demolition Orders.

Sections 17 to 21.

A local authority for the purpose of Part II. of the principal Act shall cause an inspection to be made of their district to ascertain whether any dwelling-house is in a state so dangerous or injurious to health as to be unfit for human habitation. If on the representation of the medical officer of health or other officer of the authority or other information given, the house appears to them to be in such state, they can make an order for its closing. An owner aggrieved thereby may appeal to the Local Government Board. When the closing order becomes operative the local authority are to give notice to the occupying tenant, who within the time specified on the notice, not being less than 14 days, shall cease to occupy the house. A tenant, unless the house

has been rendered unfit for occupation by his wilful act or default, may be allowed a reasonable allowance on account of his expenses in removing, which can be recovered from the owner. The local authority may determine any closing order when they are satisfied that the house is rendered fit for habitation, and on this point the owner has an appeal to the Local Government Board.

On and after 1st July, 1910, a room habitually used as a sleeping place, the floor of which is more than 3 feet below the surface of the part of the street adjoining or nearest to the room, shall be deemed to be unfit for habitation if not on an average at least 7 feet in height from the floor to the ceiling, or if it does not comply with such regulations as the local authority with the consent of the Board may prescribe for securing proper ventilation, lighting and protection against dampness and effluvia. If the local authority fail to make the regulations when called upon by the Board, the Board may themselves make them.

A closing order made for these reasons is not to prevent a room being used for purposes other than a sleeping place, nor can an order of demolition be made in respect of it. In other cases where a closing order has remained operative for three months, the local authority shall take into consideration the demolition of the house. The authority are to give every owner notice when the question will be considered, and an owner is entitled to be heard upon it.

If, on such consideration, the local authority are of opinion that the house has not been rendered fit for habitation, and that the necessary steps have not been taken with due diligence to render it fit, or that the continuance of the building is a nuisance, or dangerous or

injurious to health, they may order its demolition. If an owner undertakes to execute works which the local authority consider will render the house fit for habitation, they may, if they think fit, postpone the demolition order for such time, not exceeding six months, as they may think sufficient for executing the works.

Any owner aggrieved by an order for demolition may appeal to the Local Government Board, by giving notice within 21 days after the service of the order.

Power is also given to an owner to redeem any annuity charged on any property under Section 36 of the principal Act, and provision is made as to priority of charges under Section 37 of the principal Act; the power that a court of summary jurisdiction possessed to extend the time for the execution of works or demolition of a building is revoked.

Amendments with respect to Improvement and Reconstruction Schemes.

Sections 22 to 29.

This part of the Act amends Sections 4 and 6 of the principal Act and provides that an improvement scheme for an unhealthy area may include power to close and divert highways. It also removes the limitation under which an order confirming an improvement scheme does not take effect without confirmation by Parliament, and permits a local authority to modify a scheme, and provides for inquiries by the Board's inspectors as to unhealthy areas and for the compensation money when settled by arbitration in connection with any scheme of reconstruction under Part II. of the principal Act to be

apportioned by the arbitrator between the persons having an interest therein.

Amendments with respect to Financial Matters.

Sections 30 to 35.

The expenses incurred by a rural district council in the execution of Part III. of the Act are to be defrayed as general expenses under the Public Health Act, except so far as the Local Government Board, on the application of the council, may declare that they are to be charged as special or general expenses on a specified place in the district. Power is given to a rural district council to borrow for the purposes of Part III. of the Act.

Lodging-houses for working classes are exempt from payment of inhabited house duty.

General Amendments.

Sections 36 to 51.

Powers of entry upon houses, premises or buildings, can be given to any person by the local authority, or the Local Government Board for the purposes of survey and examination or valuation in connection with a compulsory purchase or closing or demolition order, or for the purpose of determining whether any powers under the Housing Acts should be exercised in respect thereof.

The Local Government Board, if it appears expedient to them to inquire whether any powers under the Housing Acts should be put into force in a particular area or not, may require the local authority to make a report to them containing such particulars as to population and other matters as they may direct.

The procedure on any appeal to the Local Government Board under this Part of the Act shall be such as the Board may by rules determine, but in any case the Board may not dismiss any appeal without having first held a public local inquiry. The Board may, before considering an appeal, require the appellant to deposit a sum for costs.

There is to be no obligation on a local authority to sell or dispose of any lands or buildings acquired or constructed by them for any of the purposes of the Housing Acts.

The erection of back to back houses is prohibited unless the medical officer of health certifies that they are so arranged as to secure effective ventilation of every room.

The Local Government Board may revoke by-laws as to new streets and buildings which in their opinion impede the erection of houses for the working classes, and may make such new by-laws as they may consider necessary for the removal of the impediment.

A local authority may not acquire for the purposes of the Act any sites of ancient monuments and objects of archæological interest, or take by compulsion for the purposes of Part III. of the 1890 Act any land the property of a local authority, or belonging to a corporation or railway, dock, canal, or water company, or other public undertaking or which forms part of any park, garden or pleasure grounds, or is otherwise required for the amenity or convenience of any dwelling-house.

Commentary on Part I.

Before the passing of the Act, Part III. of the principal Act could only be put in force by such local autho-

rities as had adopted it; in future, it takes effect in every urban and rural district.

Under these powers an authority can acquire land and lay out roads, erect houses for the working classes, or let the land on lease for that purpose.

In the Paper which I had the honour of reading at the Summer Meeting held in Birmingham in 1906, I expressed the opinion that the better provision of houses for the working classes in rural districts resolved itself almost entirely into a question of cost, and that provision should not be made at the expense of the rates.

It is to be hoped that district councils will not embark in any building schemes which involve speculation with the ratepayers' money, unless they are thoroughly satisfied that the schemes can be carried out without a charge upon the rates. Otherwise it would be very unfair to ratepayers who were erecting houses in competition, or who had already made proper provision for the housing of labourers working on their estates.

The powers of enforcing the execution of the Act are very large, and the fact that they can be set in motion by four householders of a district may lead to a number of unreasonable complaints being made to the Board. As, however, in all cases of complaint that a local authority has neglected its duty the Board have to hold a public inquiry, and before coming to any decision have to take into consideration all the circumstances of the case, a proper safeguard is provided to prevent unnecessary expenditure.

The stipulation that the arbitrator is to act on his own knowledge and experience must appeal to all Members of The Institution, and would lead one to hope that practical valuers may be appointed for these posts,

although this is contrary to what was stated by the President of the Local Government Board in the House of Commons. The arbitrator may not, except with the permission of the Board, hear counsel or expert witnesses, which makes it all the more necessary that a practical valuer should be appointed.

In any event, however, it is to be hoped that permission will not be withheld except in small cases, as it is important that an arbitrator should have all the facts bearing on a compensation case put clearly and fully before him, and this can best be done by counsel; he should also have the advantage of hearing the evidence of members of our profession who are qualified by training and experience to express an opinion as to value. On the evidence thus brought before him an arbitrator would then, from his knowledge and experience, be better able to give an equitable decision than could otherwise be the case.

The scale of costs applicable to an arbitration may be fixed by the Board, and the proviso in the First Schedule that an arbitrator may determine costs and has power to disallow any costs that he considers to have been unnecessarily incurred, should be sufficient protection that the costs of an arbitration, even when counsel and expert witnesses are retained, are not more than is reasonable.

Section 14 is an important one, as it provides that in any contracts made after the passing of the Act there shall be implied a condition that houses let at a rent not exceeding the sums specified are reasonably fit for human habitation, and will be so kept.

This provision will, I believe, apply only to contracts made after the passing of the Act, in which case its application will for a time be very limited, increasing

from time to time as existing tenancies are determined, and new ones created. In the meantime the conditions imposed by Section 75 of the principal Act will apply. This provides that a house let at a rent not exceeding in London £20, in Liverpool £13, in Manchester and Birmingham £10, and elsewhere £8, is to be reasonably fit for occupation at the commencement of the tenancy, but the landlord is not put under any obligation to maintain it in that condition.

Another point in Section 14 to be considered is what is meant by "rent." I conclude that it refers to annual rent, but it is not clear whether it applies to a gross or a net rent. Should it apply to the rent actually paid by the tenant of a house inequalities must arise. For instance, in the case of two houses in the same neighbourhood of equal accommodation and annual value, the tenant of one may be paying a rent which includes a sum for rates, whereas the tenant of the other pays a smaller rent but pays the rates also. In the case of the former the rent might be a sum exceeding the amount specified in the section, while the rent of the latter would be less than the amount specified. The occupier of the one house would then be excluded from the benefit of the section, while the occupier of the other would not.

In the case of closing and demolition orders under Part II. of the principal Act, the process is made much simpler, as instead of an Order being made by a Court of Summary Jurisdiction with an appeal to Quarter Sessions, an Order can now be made by the local authority with an appeal to the Board.

The Board are not to dismiss any appeal without having first held a local inquiry, but their decision is final. Objections may fairly be taken to this proceeding,

inasmuch as it leaves everything to the decision of the Government Department who are directly concerned in enforcing due observance of all sanitary matters throughout the country. It would, I think, have been better had an appeal been allowed to the stipendiary magistrate or county court.

I cannot find that any procedure is set out in the Act for the issue of a closing order by a local authority. Section 17 (3) provides for service of notice on an owner; he should, however, have proper notice that a closing order is being considered, and should be given an opportunity of conferring with the authority, and time should be allowed him to carry out any works which he may be prepared to do to meet the necessities of the case.

The provision by Section 28 that the compensation payable in respect of the demolition of obstructive buildings is to be apportioned by the arbitrator between the parties interested is a very useful one, and will prevent disputes between lessors and lessees and others interested in the property.

The prohibition of the erection of back-to-back houses is one which must commend itself to all surveyors. There is no doubt that the erection of this class of house, except in cases were side ventilation is provided, has been a great factor in the creation of slum property. The stipulation that such houses may be erected if the medical officer of health certifies that the rooms in the houses can be properly ventilated will provide a safeguard for those cases in which circumstances may make it permissible to erect this class of house.

Section 44, which empowers the Local Government Board to revoke by-laws as to new streets and buildings, which in their opinion impede the erection of houses for

the working classes, will be of great value in cases where the by-laws of a local authority provide for the construction of streets of so costly a nature as to impose a heavy charge on the land, which has to be recouped out of the rents of any houses erected upon it. In many instances the by-laws as to the construction of new streets might be relaxed without putting the local authority into any worse position as regards the maintenance of the roads. In some cases indeed it would be desirable to relax the building by-laws, but I have not found that they press so hardly on the provision of cheap houses as do the by-laws relating to the construction of roads.

The term of "owner," as defined in the principal Act, included a freeholder who had demised his property for a term of years, of which less than 21 years were unexpired. In the case of property originally let on a 99 years' building lease where less than 21 years of the term was unexpired, the local authority could treat the lessor as the owner, although he was only in receipt of the ground rent, and could call upon him to deal with the property under Part II. of the principal Act; the owner was then placed in the difficulty that he had no power under the lease to enter on the property, to close it, or to carry out the necessary works.

As I read the Act I understand that this particular definition of an owner for the purposes of the Act is repealed, and that the expression will now include lessees, except those holding on a lease, the original term of which was less than 21 years. If I am correct in this a considerable hardship will have been removed.

The effect of the new definition of "cottage" is to increase the size of a garden from half an acre to one acre, and the limitation as to annual value is removed.

PART II.

Town Planning.

Sections 54 to 67.

A town planning scheme may be made as respects any land which is in course of development or appears likely to be used for building purposes with the general object of securing proper sanitary conditions, amenity, and convenience in connection with the laying out and use of the land and of any neighbouring lands.

The Board may authorise a local authority, which by Section 65 means the council of any borough or urban or rural district, to prepare a scheme with reference to any land within or in the neighbourhood of their area, but before doing so they must be satisfied that there is a *prima facie* case for making such a scheme.

The Board may also authorise a local authority to adopt with or without modification, any scheme proposed by owners of land in respect of which they might themselves have been authorised to prepare a scheme.

They may also authorise the inclusion in the scheme of any land already built upon or any land not likely to be used for building purposes, providing it is so situate that it ought to be included in the scheme; and they may provide for the demolition or alteration of any buildings thereon.

A scheme prepared or adopted by a local authority is not to have effect until approved by the Board, and the Board may refuse to approve any scheme except with such modifications and subject to such conditions as they may think fit to impose.

Before a scheme is approved by the Board notice of their intention to do so is to be published in the *London* or *Edinburgh Gazette* as the case may be, and if within 21 days from such publication any person or authority interested objects, the draft of the Order is to be laid before each House of Parliament for a period of 30 days during the Session of Parliament, and if either House within 30 days presents an address against the draft or any part of it, no further proceedings shall be taken thereon.

A scheme, when approved by the Local Government Board, is to have effect as if it were enacted in the Act. It may, however, be varied or revoked by a subsequent scheme, and the Board, on the application of the responsible authority or of any person appearing to them to be interested, have power of revocation.

The expression, "land likely to be used for building "purposes," includes any lands likely to be used as, or for providing open spaces, roads, streets, parks, pleasure or recreation grounds, or for the purpose of executing any works incidental to a town planning scheme, whether in the nature of building work or not. The decision of the Board whether land is likely to be used for building purposes or not is to be final.

The Board may prescribe a set of general provisions, or separate provisions adapted for areas of special character, for carrying out the general objects of schemes, and for dealing with the matters set out in the Fourth Schedule, which deals with a number of very important matters, including streets and roads, and the closing or diversion of existing highways; buildings, open spaces, both private and public; preservation of objects of historical interest and natural beauty; sewerage, drainage, sewage disposal; lighting, water supply, ancillary

or consequential works; extinction or variation of private rights of way or easements; dealing with, or disposal of, land acquired by the local authority; power of entry and inspection; power to remove, alter, or demolish any obstructive work; power to make agreements with owners, and of owners to make agreements with each other; power to accept money or property in furtherance of the scheme and to make regulations in connection therewith; application for the modification and adoption of statutory enactments; carrying out and supplementing the provisions of the Act for enforcing schemes, and for limiting the time for operation of scheme; co-operation of the authority with owners of land in the scheme or other persons interested by means of conferences; and charging on any land the sum to be paid in respect of increase in the value of that land.

The provisions appropriate to a particular area shall form part of every scheme except so far as varied or excluded under the scheme.

Special provisions shall also be inserted defining the area to which the scheme is to apply and the authority who are to enforce it and execute the works, and shall provide for matters to be dealt with by the general provisions and otherwise supplement, exclude, or vary such provisions, and deal with special circumstances not covered by the general provisions. They shall also provide for the suspension, so far as may be necessary to carry out the scheme, of any statutory enactments, by-laws, regulations or other provisions which are in operation in the area to be included in the scheme. Should, however, the scheme contain provisions suspending any enactment, it is not to come into force until a draft has been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than 40 days during the Session, and if either House

presents an address against the proposed suspension no further proceedings shall be taken on the draft scheme.

Where land to be dealt with in a scheme is situate in the area of more than one local authority, or is in the area of an authority by whom the scheme was not prepared, the authority responsible for carrying out the scheme may be one of those authorities, or for certain purposes of the scheme one authority, and for other purposes another authority, or a joint body may be constituted specially for the purposes of the scheme. This provision does not apply to land in the county of London, except with the consent of the London County Council.

The Local Government Board may make regulations to regulate the procedure with respect to applications for authority to prepare or adopt a scheme, for the preparation of the scheme, for obtaining the approval of the Board to the scheme, and for carrying it out and enforcing its observance. The regulations are to provide for securing the co-operation of the local authority with the owners and other persons interested in the land proposed to be included in the scheme by means of conferences and otherwise, and that notice shall be given to any council interested, and for dealing with other matters set out in the Fifth Schedule of the Act, as follows :—

1. Procedure anterior to and for purpose of application for authority to prepare or adopt a scheme;

   Submission of plans and estimates and publication of Notice;

2. Procedure during, on and after and before approval of scheme;

(A) Submission to the Board of the proposed scheme with plans and estimates;

(B) Notice of submission of scheme to the Board;

(C) Hearing of objections and representations by persons affected, including representatives of Architectural or Archæological Societies, or others interested in the amenities of the scheme;

(D) Publication of notice of intention to approve the scheme and the lodging of objection thereto.

3. Procedure after the approval of scheme;

(A) Notice to be given of approval of scheme;

(B) Enquiries and reports as to the beginning and the progress and completion of works and other actions under the scheme;

4. Duty at any stage of the local authority to publish or deposit any scheme and the plans relating thereto, and to give information to persons affected with reference to any scheme;

5. The details to be specified on the plans, including, where required, the restrictions as to the number of buildings to be erected per acre and the height and character.

The local authority are empowered after giving due notice to remove, pull down, or alter any building or other work which is such as to contravene the scheme, or in the erection or carrying out of which the scheme has not been complied with, and may also execute any work which it is the duty of any person to execute under the provisions of the scheme, where delay in the

execution of the work would prejudice the efficient operation of the scheme.

The expenses incurred in so doing may be recovered from the persons in default in the manner provided for in the scheme.

If any question arises as to whether any building or work contravenes the scheme or whether any provision of the scheme has not been complied with, the question shall be referred to the Board, and unless the parties otherwise agree shall be determined by the Board as arbitrators, their decision being final.

Any person whose property is injuriously affected by a scheme is entitled to compensation from the responsible authority provided he makes a claim within the time limited by the scheme, but no person is entitled to compensation on account of any buildings erected or other matter done after the application for authority to prepare the scheme was made or after such other time as the Board may fix, but this restriction will not apply to any work carried out for the purpose of finishing a building begun or of carrying out a contract entered into before such application was made.

Where any property is increased in value by a scheme the authority is entitled to recover from the person whose property is so increased, one-half of the amount of the increase provided that the claim is made within the time limited by the scheme.

The question of whether any property is injuriously affected or increased in value, and amount and manner of payment of the sum to be paid as compensation or recovered as betterment, is to be determined by a single arbitrator appointed by the Board, unless the parties agree to some other method of determination. Any amount due under the section as compensation from or

to an authority may be recovered summarily as a civil debt.

Where a scheme is revoked any person who has incurred expenditure for the purpose of complying with the scheme is entitled to compensation in respect of any part of the expenditure which is rendered abortive by such revocation.

Where property is alleged to be injuriously affected by any provisions in a scheme, no compensation is to be paid if the provisions are such as would have been enforceable under by-laws made by the local authority.

Property is not to be deemed to be injuriously affected by any provisions under a scheme which to secure the amenity of the area included in it prescribe the space about buildings or limit the number of buildings to be erected or prescribe the height or character of buildings, and which the Board, having regard to the nature and situation of the land, consider reasonable for the purpose.

Where any person is entitled to compensation under any other enactments in respect of the same matter as he is entitled to compensation under this Act, he is not to be entitled to both and to no greater compensation under this Act than he would be entitled to under any other enactment.

The responsible authority for the purpose of a scheme may purchase any land comprised in it by agreement or compulsorily in the manner provided for in Part III. of Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, as amended by this Act.

A local authority, although not the authority responsible for carrying out a scheme, may purchase land situate in their area that is comprised in a scheme in the same manner as the responsible authority.

The Board can require defaulting authorities to prepare or carry out schemes, to adopt schemes proposed by owners, to consent to any modifications or conditions imposed by the Board, to enforce the observance of a scheme, and failing compliance the Board's Order may be enforced by mandamus.

Where the Local Government Board are authorised to determine any matter under this part of the Act they have the option of acting as arbitrators or otherwise. If they elect or are required to act as arbitrators the provisions of the Regulations of Railways Acts, 1868, respecting arbitrations of the Board of Trade and the amendments thereto are to apply.

Enquiries by the Board are to be regulated by Sections 85 of the Housing of Working Classes Act of 1890, but the restriction that the fee of the person holding the enquiry is to be limited to £3 3*s.* a day has been revoked.

All general provisions made under this part of the Act are to be laid as soon as may be before Parliament.

Expenses incurred under this part of the Act or any scheme made thereunder shall be defrayed as expenses under the Public Health Acts, and an authority may borrow in the same manner as provided for by those Acts, but money so borrowed shall not be reckoned as part of the debt for the purpose of limitation on borrowing under that Act.

In London this part of the Act applies to the administrative county, the London County Council being the local authority.

Commentary on Part II.

Part II. of the Act is an entirely new departure in

legislature connected with land. Hitherto owners of property have been able, so long as they observe the local by-laws as to the construction of new streets and buildings, to develop their estates as they think well, without any regard to what may be best for the locality and the community at large. The result, as we are aware, has in many cases been detrimental to the particular district in which the property is situate. The exception has usually been in the case of large estates, many of which have been laid out on broad and comprehensive lines, due regard being paid to the amenities of the district, resulting in corresponding advantages to the neighbourhood and the owner of the property.

Want of control and foresight has had disastrous results in the case of many great centres of population, where no proper provision has been made for the setting out of main thoroughfares leading out to the country, and where houses for the working classes have been crowded together without consideration of the consequences attendant on overcrowding.

Objections have been made that the Act, by placing in the hands of the Local Government Board the control of all schemes for town planning, will seriously interfere with and restrict initiation by local authorities. Against this it may be fairly contended that individual authorities, without proper direction, might either neglect to carry out the Act or would proceed on different lines, and that it is of the utmost importance for the future of town planning that it should be carried out on general well-defined lines, which can best be assured by all schemes being submitted to and approved by the Board.

In discussing this part of the Act, it will be useful to consider what is meant by "Town Planning." The Act sets out that the general object of "Town Planning" is

to secure proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in connection with the laying out and use of land likely to be used for building purposes and of any neighbouring land.

To secure this object I consider it will be necessary in preparing schemes to provide for the laying out of land for housing purposes so as to secure the best results to the persons who will live in the houses, without having regard to the interest of any particular landowner, care being taken that in every scheme wide through main thoroughfares be provided with recreation grounds, open spaces, and small playgrounds for children, and intermediate roads so graded as to be only of sufficient width and strength to serve the purpose of affording means of communication to a limited number of houses per acre. The laying out of the main thoroughfares should be arranged so as to allow of quick and cheap means of transit from the populous districts to the locality dealt with by the scheme.

The next point to be considered is, in respect to what land a scheme may be made. The words of the Act, as set out in Section 54 are wide, and most land round towns may reasonably be considered to "appear "likely to be used for building purposes" at some time or other; and the fact that where land, although not likely to be built upon, is so situate with respect to any land likely to be built upon as to be essential for the carrying out of a scheme, it may be included in the scheme, should remove difficulties in dealing with large areas.

The question of whether land is likely to be used for building purposes or not is left to the Board, whose decision is final. It is to be hoped that no narrow interpretation will be imposed which might prevent the

laying out of schemes to provide for through means of communication, a matter which is of the utmost importance. If this can be provided for, the development of intervening land may reasonably be left to individual effort under the general supervision of the local authority and the Board.

In this country few opportunities can occur for laying out an entirely new district, most schemes will deal with land round a town in which case all the circumstances will have to be taken into consideration and regard paid to existing highways.

The proviso in Section 54 that a local authority may adopt a scheme prepared by one or more landowners is a most useful provision of which full advantage should be taken. In the case of a large estate, a scheme, if approved by the local authority and the Board, would permit of the development of the estate on town planning lines, whereby the disadvantages that landowners now have to contend with in complying with local by-laws as to the construction of roads would be mitigated, the by-laws being relaxed to meet each individual case. In the same way a scheme by a number of landowners for the development of intermixed estates would provide for the development of the particular properties on the same lines.

I hope that in practice it will be found that schemes will be largely initiated by landowners, who by combination and agreement can more expeditiously and conveniently secure the ends in view than it is possible for a local authority to do by the use of compulsory powers. The provision of an appeal to the Local Government Board, in the event of a local authority not approving a landowner's scheme, is of great value.

Section 55 gives the Board power to prescribe a set

of general provisions for carrying out the general objects of schemes, but it does not appear to be obligatory upon them to do so. Regulations will, however, be urgently required, and it is to be hoped will be issued at the earliest possible moment. These regulations will act in much the same way for this Act as the "Lands Clauses "Act" does in matters of compensation and the taking of land compulsorily, and will define and regulate the matters set out in this section and in the Fourth Schedule.

The Board have to prescribe special provisions for each scheme, defining amongst other matters its area, and the authority who are to be responsible for it carrying out and (subject to either House of Parliament not objecting) suspending statutory enactments and by-laws.

This is a most important provision, as to my mind the success of town planning is largely dependent upon the relaxation of by-laws relating to street construction. Unless the cost of road-making can be reduced there appears to be little prospect for the successful laying out of estates on town planning lines; in many cases the expenditure that might reasonably be saved on road making would be sufficient to cover the value of land given up for open spaces and to meet any depreciation in value of the building sites which might arise from a restriction being placed on the number of houses to be put up per acre.

The Board may also make regulations for regulating the procedure applicable to the preparation and adoption and carrying out and enforcing a scheme. It will be convenient to have these regulations at once, as little can be done towards preparing a scheme until they are issued.

One of the most important matters to be dealt with

in each scheme by regulation will be the details to be specified in the plans, including where necessary the restrictions on the number of buildings which may be erected on each acre and the height and character of those buildings.

The restriction on the number of buildings to be put up on a particular property may in some cases inflict hardship on a landowner and involve him in considerable loss, but in the majority of cases any depreciation in value caused by this restriction would, I think, be fairly met by the power that is given to relax by-laws permitting of the construction of cheaper roads. The capital outlay would in consequence be much less, so that although the land would realise a lower rate per acre, the return to the landowner should be much the same.

In the case of large estates any difference in value would be further met by the better demand there would be for land lying at a greater distance from populous places than the land to be dealt with in the scheme. Under the old conditions this outlying land would probably not be utilised for building purposes for many years. Under new conditions with successful town planning a much larger area should be brought into the market.

The question of the restriction on the height and character of the buildings is an important matter. In cases where a scheme provides for the erection of small houses it is probable that the numbers would vary from 12 to possibly 18 per acre, and when the land is used for this purpose I do not think any hardship would be inflicted by regulating the height of the buildings. On the contrary, it seems to me a very useful provision, as it would prevent the erection of high tenement houses, a

practice which has been carried out in Germany without, so far as I understand, giving satisfactory results. The question of prescribing the character of the buildings raises a much wider issue. It is intended, I conclude, that a scheme may prescribe whether houses, shops, public buildings, warehouses, or factories, or which of them, are to be allowed, and the area and position of the land included in the scheme which is to be devoted to each class of buildings.

If this can be done the power should be exercised with great care, as undoubtedly hardships to an individual may be caused by obliging him to use his land for a purpose for which it is not well fitted. The Act precludes such an owner from obtaining compensation under this head.

It is, of course, necessary for the amenities of a town planning scheme that houses and commercial buildings should not be erected indiscriminately. A scheme should be so devised as not to inflict a hardship on an owner in respect of which the Act precludes him from compensation.

The proviso that the Board may make regulations for securing conferences with the landowners, and for hearing objections before the approval of a scheme, will give all owners full opportunity of laying their views as to the restriction on buildings and other matters before the authority, and they would also have a further opportunity to lodge objections to the approval of the scheme by the Board.

The power of the responsible authority to enforce a scheme seems to be limited to the removal, pulling down, or alteration of any building or other work which is in contravention of the scheme, and to executing any work which it is the duty of any person to execute under the

scheme. The authority do not appear to have any power under this part of the Act to make roads and put up houses as they can under Part I. of the Act. It may happen, however, that they may have to construct roads which it is the duty of some person to execute under the scheme, and which he has neglected to do.

No directions are given in the Act as to when a building or work which contravenes a scheme is to be pulled down; the carrying out of a scheme will take time, and in many cases it may not be necessary to remove a building until its completion; provision to provide for this should accordingly be made in schemes where necessary.

By Section 58 any person whose property is injuriously affected by the making of a town planning scheme is (with certain limitations) entitled to compensation from the responsible authority.

The words of the section appear to have a somewhat wider application than Section 63 of the Lands Clauses Act, and do not appear to limit the payment of compensation to property situate within the area of the scheme; no one can, however, obtain compensation for anything done on land included in the scheme after the time at which application for authority to prepare the scheme was made, or such other time as the Board may fix. The preparation and completion of the scheme will probably take some time, during which an owner must either postpone the development of his land, or carry out the works at his own risk.

The Act provides for payment of "betterment" to the responsible authority in respect of any property that is increased in value by the making of a scheme. The amount the authority can recover in respect of such property is one-half the amount of the increase.

Many questions as to whether lands are injuriously affected or increased in value by the operation of a scheme are certain to arise. All such matters are to be determined by the arbitration of a single arbitrator appointed by the Board, unless the parties agree on some other method.

The proviso that where a scheme is revoked any person, who has incurred expenditure for the purpose of complying with the scheme, shall be compensated so far as the expenditure is rendered abortive by the revocation of the scheme, does not appear to me to go far enough. An owner should also be entitled to compensation on revocation of a scheme for any loss of income he may have sustained by reason of having been precluded from dealing with the land in any manner he thought fit during the time the scheme was in force. I can conceive it possible that restrictions may be imposed by a scheme which would make it impossible for an owner to deal with his land, and if the scheme is ultimately revoked, an owner should in such case be entitled to receive from the authority compensation in respect of the loss that he has incurred by having been forced to hold up his land.

Local authorities can purchase by agreement or compulsorily any land comprised in a scheme. The procedure for compulsory purchase is the same as in Part I. of the Act. It is not quite clear in what way the authority can deal with the land. The general provisions prescribed by the Board will include "dealing with or "disposal of land acquired by the responsible authority "or by a local authority"; these may possibly authorise the authority to lay out streets and deal with the land for building purposes.

In all cases where the Board are authorised to determine matters they can act as arbitrators or otherwise.

If they determine the matter as arbitrators the provisions of the Regulation of Railways Act, 1868, and its amendments are to be applicable. It appears to be open to the Board under this part of the Act to appoint an arbitrator to act on their behalf.

The terms of the town planning part of the Act are so very general that it will be difficult to predict how it will work, but I have no doubt that it will form the basis of a good working arrangement between landowners and local authorities, and it is with this hope that I commend it to the Members of The Institution, feeling sure that they are in agreement with anything which will conduce to the better laying out and development of land, as being to the advantage of those for whom they act and of the community at large.

PART III.

County Medical Officers, County Public Health and Housing Committee.

Sections 68 to 72.

Every county council is to appoint a medical officer of health, whose duties shall be such as may be prescribed by the Local Government Board, and as may be assigned to him by the council.

The medical officer is to have the same powers of entry on premises as the medical officer of health in the district now enjoys, and he is only removable by the county council with the consent of the Local Government Board. The medical officer is not to be appointed for a limited time, and any officer appointed after the

3rd December, 1909, is not to engage in private practice, nor to hold any other public appointment without the consent of the Board.

Medical officers of urban and rural districts are to furnish to the county medical officer any information which is in their power to give and which he may reasonably require from them for the purposes of his duties as prescribed by the Board.

By Section 71 every county council has to establish a Public Health and Housing Committee to whom shall be referred all matters relating to public health and the housing of the working classes except the power of rating or borrowing money. The council before exercising any powers in such matters shall consider the report of that committee. The council may delegate their powers to such committee with or without restrictions or conditions, except the power of rating and borrowing money, and except any power of resolving that the power of a district council in default be transferred to the council.

The county council may promote the extension or formation of, and may assist societies on a co-operative basis, one of whose objects is the erection or improvement of dwellings for the working classes; and may, with the consent of and subject to the regulations of the Board, make or guarantee advances to the society on such terms as they may approve, and may borrow the amount required, provided that any advance made on the security of any property shall not exceed two-thirds of its value.

This part of the Act puts the county medical officer in a position to obtain full and complete information as to the sanitary conditions throughout an administrative county, and by providing for the appointment of

public health and housing committees by county councils, insures that the information he obtains may be systematically dealt with.

PART IV.

Supplemental.

Sections 73 to 76.

Any scheme or order under the Housings Act, or Part II. of this Act, authorising the acquisition or appropriation of any commons, open spaces, or allotments shall be provisional only until confirmed by Parliament, and no common, open space, or allotment, shall be taken for any of the purposes of the Act without adequate provision being made for the substitution of other land not less in area in its place. The expression "common" is to include any land subject to be enclosed under the Inclosure Act, and any town or village green. "Open space" means any land laid out as a public garden and used for public recreation and any disused burial ground. "Allotment" means any allotment set out as a field allotment or a field garden allotment under any Inclosure Act.

Mr. H. Chatfeild Clarke (Member of Council) said that it gave him great pleasure to propose a hearty vote of thanks to Mr. Willmot for his valuable Paper. He knew that Mr. Willmot was one of the busiest members in the Midlands, and he was quite sure that a great amount of time must have been expended in ferreting

through what was now an Act of Parliament in order to present it in the simplified form in which it had been presented.

While the Paper was being read he could not help remembering what his father had said to him many years ago when he was taken into partnership, "Well, "my boy, I think we ought to have an accountant to "keep the books to see that everything is right," and having had the books so kept at the end of the first year neither he nor his father could make head or tail of them, and they had begged the accountant to keep them in the future in a simpler manner. Similarly he thought that the Members of The Institution, as practising surveyors, should have Acts of Parliament kept as simple as was reasonably possible. They were not lawyers and did not pretend to be, and they could not always have a lawyer at their right hand, and therefore such a Paper as they had just listened to was a great aid to them in their work, and the Members of The Institution were greatly indebted to Mr. Willmot that he had read it to them so soon after the Act had been passed.

Years ago, he remembered, they had several very valuable Papers on the question of the Housing of the Working Classes, and the various schemes were fully considered, with the result that great blocks of buildings were erected; but he himself, having had 20 years' experience, very much doubted whether that was the best form of habitation to put up. In his opinion something more of the nature foreshadowed in the Act under consideration would be better for the community at large, and tend to make healthier and stronger citizens.

He had no doubt that some of the Members present had

seen the recent report of the Medical Officer for Southwark as to the terrible state of some of the Southwark streets, proving that they were grossly overcrowded, and really not fit for human habitation. It fell to his (Mr. Clarke) lot a little while back to visit a few places in the district, and he was sure that no man in the room would have thought it decent or respectable for any human being to live in.

He could not go into the Paper in detail as he had not given the matter sufficient time and study, but he agreed with the broad lines of the Act. He thought there was proper provision for compensation and for appeal on any point of controversy.

He quite agreed with Mr. Willmot that the provisions for putting a stop to the building of back-to-back houses was an extremely valuable one; in some of the northern towns this class of house had been favoured for a good many years, but he was bound to say that he had formed a most unfavourable opinion about those he had seen and inspected. If some scheme could be found of easing the expense on roads, side roads especially, leaving main roads thoroughly good, it would aid them very much in carrying out schemes under the Act of Parliament.

He hoped they would all respond and give Mr. Willmot a very sincere and hearty vote of thanks for his able Paper.

Mr. Richard Fowler (Fellow) said it gave him especial pleasure, as a Birmingham man, to second the vote of thanks to Mr. Willmot for his valuable Paper.

He (the speaker) could assure the Members that surveyors in Birmingham highly valued Mr. Willmot's business capacity and knowledge as a surveyor, and he thought this was demonstrated to those present by the lucid manner in which he had explained so complicated an Act of Parliament at so early a stage. It had been most interesting and instructive, and he had no doubt that when the Paper was printed it would be looked upon as a text-book, and many surveyors would keep it handy for future reference with their digests of various Acts of Parliament.

Mr. Raymond Unwin (Visitor) said he would like to add a few words upon the points raised partly at that Meeting and partly at the Meeting of the 22nd November last. First of all, he heartily concurred in the vote of thanks to Mr. Willmot for his very able and clear exposition of a most complicated Act, the town planning part of which, as had been pointed out, opened out in many ways a somewhat new field of legislature in this country; not only was this so in the work which it made possible for them to carry out for the first time, but also in the arbitration procedure for the assessment of damages. He thought they would all watch with interest the attempt at simplification of procedure in those matters. Many of them no doubt had felt at times that the paraphernalia and cost of carrying a case to arbitration was altogether out of proportion to the amount at issue, and that it was really more important to arrive at a decision in a small matter of £500, even if that decision when obtained was a little less ideally perfect, than to spend £1,500 in getting an

entirely correct decision by present methods. The attempt which had been made in this Act to accomplish that ought, he thought, to appeal to them, and he hoped at any rate that they would give it a good trial, and see whether it was possible in some way to simplify the difficulty and curtail the expenditure of getting a decision in what might perhaps be a comparatively small matter.

There was one point under the Town Planning Act that he thought had not been noticed, and that was the question of dealing with intermediate sites. It appeared that town planning schemes could be put forward on behalf of landlords or others for their individual estates, but there appeared to be no provision for giving local authorities power to interfere with a small plan for the development of an estate, if put forward in the ordinary way, and not as a town planning scheme. That was a difficulty which might arise, and particularly in the years which must elapse before the whole area around growing towns could possibly be covered by schemes; this might possibly be met to some extent by the regulations of the Local Government Board, and he hoped they would take it into account. It was very important that the matter should be dealt with, because, as the reader of the Paper hinted, it was of the utmost value that individual estates should be planned for the owners of those estates by their own architects or surveyors, and in that way they would be able to bring into the town planning some individuality and variety of treatment and character which could alone come from the concentration of perfect knowledge of particular areas. Town planning, if attempted as a whole, was such a vast business that an archangel from Heaven could not

possibly have sufficient knowledge to make the best of each corner of land.

He hoped that they would not follow the practice which had been too common in Germany of laying down complete plans for the development of a town, even to the laying out of every small street and the placing of all the buildings from the beginning. Such a matter was impossible without introducing enormous difficulties. The ideas of one man, however fertile his brain might be, were not wide enough to spread over the whole area of a town; in planning a large area one could not concentrate one's attention on each individual site for a sufficient time or give sufficient thought and care to it to develop it to its best advantage. It was very important, therefore, that they should in the first instance make the town plan somewhat in skeleton. It was, of course, necessary in the general plans to deal with traffic considerations, to lay out the main arteries for traffic, to provide for the coupling up of railway stations with docks, and to provide means of communication for the convenience of the whole town, but when it came to the planning of sites that was much better left to people on the spot who were in a position to know them and able to deal with them in detail.

He was very glad that Mr. Willmot had spoken so strongly with regard to less expensive roads, and he would like to say that co-ordination was needed not only in the by-laws but in the requirements of local authorities as to the making up of roads. Very often the by-laws were entirely at variance with the requirements put forward when the roads came to be taken over, and much work done in the first instance in laying down a road was needlessly wasted because when it was

taken over different materials were required. He considered the whole question of dealing with roads required thorough overhauling from beginning to end. The incidence of expense in making up a road was often very unfair. It was most absurd that they should have one fixed size for roads and that they should be required to lay down a traffic way 30, 40, or 50 feet wide, according to the local by-law, to give access to a handful of houses built off the main road to escape the annoyance of motor traffic, and that this road should be made up, kerbed, channelled, and macadamised with six inches of granite as if it were a main highway.

The Surveyors' Institution might render much assistance if they would consider some of the best ways of dealing with small roads and carriage drives, and the best manner of treating them. All over the country there were large institutions and large palaces, such as Chatsworth, where the population was considerable, and where the amount of traffic backwards and forwards was much greater than to a little group of houses, and it was found practicable to serve those places adequately with nothing but a carriage drive 13 or 16 feet wide, with a grass verge at the side, yet owners were required to spend enormous sums of money in making wide roads to give access to a few cottages. All this, he thought, might receive much consideration and be worked out in detail.

The character of the buildings was certainly left in a vague or, he might say, flexible position in the Act, and he thought that that was one of the most hopeful things about the Act. The whole field of work was so new to them that if they were tied down too much at the beginning they were sure to make mistakes.

In Germany the character of the buildings was regulated to a considerable extent, and this had been found good and advantageous. He thought that the same could easily be done in this country by prescribing areas and zones within which buildings of a certain character might not be erected. He had in his possession a number of German town plans, and upon those plans areas were differently coloured, and there was a schedule at the side stating that in one particular area factories of unwholesome or objectionable character were not allowed; in another factories of any kind were not allowed; in a third area block dwellings were not allowed; and in a fourth, buildings greater than three storeys in height were not allowed. In some areas building was limited to semi-detached houses; in others to detached houses; and in still other areas it was allowable to build up closely. There was thus a good deal of variety provided for, as only certain buildings were excluded from certain areas: areas were also prescribed in which shops or dwelling-houses might be built. This, whilst not tying the landowner down in such a way as to produce any serious hardship, did secure considerable protection for the amenities of the community. It secured protection to a landowner who had laid out a large estate thoroughly well for residential purposes, in that it could not be entirely spoilt, as was sometimes done in England, by the introduction of some objectionable factory on the other side of the road or fence.

From his own experience he felt that the problem of town planning was to a great extent an architectural problem. As a cobbler stuck to his last, so an architect naturally stuck to his buildings, therefore he hoped he would be excused if he put that side forward. If they

were to have beautiful towns such as they all desired they must treat the matter from an artistic point of view. It seemed to him that the difference between the functions of an architect and a surveyor and engineer was that the architect must be left the freedom which was necessary to produce an artistic creation, the surveyor and engineer laying down the lines within which he must work. It was the duty of the surveyor and engineer to lay down in a general way the conditions for the development of a town, such as where traffic was likely to go and where buildings of a certain character were likely to be developed, but when it came to the actual laying down of building lines (and the building line was much more important than the street line as regards the total effect) it seemed to him that the problem became essentially an architectural problem, an architectural problem of great difficulty requiring the very best architectural brains and the widest experience.

The Town Planning Act gave an enormous opening to both surveyors and architects for the improvement of the homes of the country, and if they were to make the most of it they must mutually understand each other's functions and positions; they must look at the subject as a whole. Architects must think of the buildings collectively and make one harmonise with another, that being of primary importance, the character of each individual building being of secondary importance; in the same way surveyors must think not exclusively of the interest of the little bit of land that for the moment they might be dealing with, but they must think of the interest of the whole area; and he was sure that if architects and surveyors came to understand each other's positions in the matter and worked together, this Town Planning Act

would afford an opportunity of doing more for the improvement of the lives and homes of the people of this country than perhaps any other measure that had been passed for many years.

Mr. Harold Griffin (Fellow) asked to be permitted to offer one or two observations upon the housing clauses of the Act, more particularly as applied to London. There was no doubt that so far as town planning was concerned it was going to be a very beneficial Act, and very likely the housing clauses relating to rural districts would be beneficial, but where London was concerned and the procedure in London, he felt that he could not quite apply the superlative language of the author of the Act in an article which appeared in the *Daily Chronicle* a day or two after the Act received the Royal Assent. To begin with the Act made no attempt to codify the law, and was another example of the bad modern system of legislation by reference. One had to read other Acts of Parliament before one could get at the bottom of it, and that necessarily made it very difficult for a layman to find out what was really meant.

Then, again, he did not like to see the jurisdiction of the Courts of Law so seriously curtailed. Every endeavour in the House of Commons to secure a judicial decision as to closing orders was denied by the President of the Local Government Board on the ground of delay and expense. With the procedure hitherto in force for obtaining the decision of a Metropolitan police magistrate, he did not think there was very much delay or expense. Most of them had confidence in the Courts, and they would not have anything like the same confidence in

a decision of a borough council which was influenced to a very great extent by the Medical Officer of Health. He would at once admit that such an area as Tabard Street in the Borough should, in order to do any good, be dealt with in a very drastic way, but he had known instances in which the decision of a borough council had been considerably modified when the parties had been before the police magistrate. There had been a case in the borough of St. Pancras, published in the estate papers as recently as November last, which showed how very necessary it was that they should not be delivered over body and soul to the tender mercies of borough councils qualified only by an appeal to the Local Government Board. Upon that point, amendments giving a right of appeal to the County Court instead of to the Board itself, had been introduced in the House of Lords, and he was sorry they had not been accepted by the Local Government Board.

With regard to the question of the enlargement of the limit of value to which the housing clauses applied and to the fact that an owner was now to be compelled to maintain the house in a reasonably fit state during the whole duration of the tenancy, it seemed to him that where the landlord received some allowance on the one hand he had responsibility thrown upon him on the other. He did not think that the imposition of such a liability in the case of houses up to a rent of £40 a year was really justified. There must be a considerable number of people who were living in houses at a less rent than £40 a year who did not require a protection which was assumed to be necessary for the working classes. An amendment might have been

inserted to provide that any separate letting of a part of a house within the same limits as before might be subject to the provisions of the Act, so that large tenement houses might have been brought within it; that would have answered every purpose, instead of insisting on such a sweeping enactment as to bring in all houses up to a limit of rental up to £40.

He was sure they must all be indebted to Mr. Willmot for the very complete way in which he had dealt with the Act, especially the explanation he had given as to the town planning part of it, which would be most useful to all of them.

Mr. W. F. Craies (Visitor) said that he wished to support the vote of thanks to Mr. Willmot for his very able Paper. He (the speaker) had had to look at the Act when it was going through Parliament, and had found it most complicated, and it was wonderful that Mr. Willmot had been able in the short space of time at his disposal to give them so useful a resumé.

In his opinion it was high time that they should have some new system in the drafting of Acts of Parliament. In many of the colonies the Bill would have been so drawn that the old law and the new would have come in together, and the Act would have been seen as a whole instead of having to wait until some member of the Bar after the vacation had been able to draw up a pamphlet for circulation among the profession.

As regards the Act itself, the important part from the point of view of rural housing was that which com-

pelled every county council to have a medical officer with independent tenure who was bound to go round and find out defects in the county. In his opinion, as soon as that was generally known county opinion would insist upon some improvement, and would enforce rural councils, where they could afford it, to take action, it would also stimulate private owners themselves to take action which would be both cheaper and more prompt.

As the last speaker had said, Part III. of the Act would not do very much good in London; in fact the adoptive part did not apply to London. London had cleared out many of its worst slums, but a large number of model dwellings which had been built ought also to be scrapped. The first model dwellings, erected in Southwark, had basements which the medical officer had been compelled to condemn on account of absolute want of light and air, but the people using these basements were able to evade the order because they said they had rooms upstairs and thus the closing of the whole place was avoided.

Mr. Unwin had already said a great deal about town planning. That was a matter for the future, and he hoped the Act would have a good result and that in the future they would have towns which they could show to foreign visitors without having to make apologies as, he was sorry to say, they had to do at the present time. The whole evil was the result of small builders getting hold of a field or two and running up and down them until they had created what in a few years would become a slum. As secretary of a society for the housing of the poor he could say that the society's efforts to clear out slum property in parts of London had been frustrated by

the activity of these little builders within three miles of the county line.

Another important part of the Act was the breaking down of by-laws under which they had all suffered. There were two powers in the Act itself. One was with respect to by-laws for cellar dwellings. He had had something to do with getting the House of Lords to put the section in its present form so as to secure lighting as well as ventilation, because although he knew that the tenants would not open their windows even when they had them; still it was well to let the light in and thus do some good even if the air was not allowed to circulate.

The other power in the Act was a clause by which the Local Government Board have power to compel local authorities to get rid of bad by-laws which prevented building for the working classes. He had been asked by his Society to draft a clause to meet this. It was stopped in the Commons by the closure, but ultimately it was put into its present shape by the House of Lords, and he hoped it would do some good.

The mischief in the past had been this: local authorities had to make by-laws; they did not know what to do, so they sent up to the Local Government Board and got their first model set, which was drawn up by some inexperienced gentleman some 30 years ago; then in rural districts they got a second set, and he believed the gentleman who drafted those had actually passed week-ends in the country. Mr. Burns, if he stayed at the Local Government Board, was going to remedy this. It was absurd to have by-laws drawn as specifications, specifying the width of road and the particular materials

to be used, although a new material might be invented next week.

He would give an instance in Northumberland where the Duke of Northumberland was stopped from building a wooden house for a man to live in to look after his salmon fishing. There were similar cases all over the country, and if by the modification of the by-laws under this Act they were allowed a little more liberty with regard to the width of roads and the material to be used, allowing of course for necessary protection from fire and damp and for proper lighting and ventilation, they would soon begin to get on.

The schemes under this Act would be something before which private Acts would pale. It would be a very good thing if landowners could be got to work together, but a tremendous lot of ink would be spilt before matters were in proper working order. This Act was a step in the right direction. Above all, they should get liberty from restrictions, and a thorough system of town planning so that one estate would not be cramped by another.

The PRESIDENT said that they were all much obliged to the speakers for having given the Meeting the benefit of their observations. He understood that Mr. William Woodward had promised to re-open the discussion at their next Meeting, on 24th January; and that Mr. Lanchester and Mr. Speaight were also expected to be

present and to exhibit some lantern diagrams and views in explanation of the subject.

The vote of thanks having been put and carried unanimously, the Meeting then adjourned.

AT

THE ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING,

Held on Monday, 24th January, 1910.

ALEXANDER ROSE STENNING (President) in the Chair.

The adjourned discussion on Mr. Davidge's Paper on "Town Planning Systems," read at the Ordinary General Meeting on 22nd November, 1909, and on Mr. John Willmot's Paper on "The Housing Town Planning, &c., "Act, 1909," read at the Ordinary General Meeting on 10th January, 1910, was resumed by the HONORARY SECRETARY, who read the following communication from Mr. WILLIAM WOODWARD, who was absent through illness :—

Mr. Davidge has added his full quota to the list of Papers which have been read—appertaining to town planning—at The Surveyors' Institution, and at the Royal Institute of British Architects during the last twenty or thirty years.

The subject is an attractive one to all dwellers in towns, and particularly so to lovers of the picturesque and beautiful in architecture, in sculpture, and in the art of gardening. The health and general well-being of the inhabitants of a town are necessarily enhanced by the carrying out of thoughtful schemes; open spaces and

decent dwellings for the community at large follow in their wake.

Mr. Davidge's studies abroad and the plans of foreign cities which he has prepared in connection with his subject—together with his most valuable criticisms thereon —will provide useful material for those who may be engaged hereafter in taking advantage of the new Town Planning Act.

There can be little doubt, I think, that all the authors who have devoted time and trouble to the question of laying out cities have been far too ambitious in their schemes, at all events for this slow-going country of ours, and they have suggested street improvements which would involve such enormous dislocation of business and such great cost, that, being entirely impracticable, they have passed into the limbo of beautiful ideals. I have been perhaps one of the greatest sinners in this respect, but after a quarter of a century's experience I have seen the error of my ways.

Many of our Members now living have witnessed the initiation and completion of the greater part of the improvements in London which have been effected during practically two centuries, very little having been done in the eighteenth century. Regent's Park, Regent Street, Cranbourn Street, and Garrick Street are perhaps just outside the ken of the oldest inhabitant, but the Thames Embankment, Charing Cross Road, Shaftesbury Avenue, Gray's Inn Road, Queen Victoria Street, the Tower Bridge, and other Corporation works, and, lastly, Aldwych and Kingsway are all improvements which the older Members of this Institution have seen carried into execution. These have been completed by the respective local authorities. There is also the fine improvement which we hope soon to see completed—the opening

of the Mall to Charing Cross, with its Grand Coronation Avenue, terminated by the monument to Queen Victoria.

That some of the above-named improvements are capable of further improvement we all know, but it is useless now to cry over spilt milk, except as a warning to us not to spill it again in the same thoughtless way.

I propose now to suggest one or two improvements which I think are within the range of practical consummation under the Town Planning Act. Just think for a moment of Paris, and remember how this question of street improvement has laid hold of its administrators. An expenditure of £36,000,000 sterling has this month been sanctioned practically to complete the grand schemes of the late Baron Haussmann. Would our administrators —Conservative or Liberal—vote a tenth of that sum to carry out street improvements or items of embellishment in London? Our policy is a short-sighted one; a fine city attracts all the world to it, and a good return for the cost is made in the money which is annually expended by thousands of visitors, which money spreads itself through the whole community.

Charing Cross and the Mall.

I think I may safely say that few of us are completely satisfied by the present appearance of the new opening to the Mall from Charing Cross. I have expressed my personal view that in lieu of the three arches there should have been only one grand triumphal arch through which a clear vista to the Victoria Memorial could have been obtained, and all the beauties of the avenue opened up; that cannot now be, and we must therefore devote ourselves to obtaining adequate appreciation of Sir Aston Webb's fine architectural

work. What administration but a London one, having obtained by national subscriptions such an improvement, would have permitted it to be half hidden and the whole effect spoilt because they would not spend the necessary money in acquiring the sites of the houses to the west in Cockspur Street, which now close in the new entrance, and in acquiring the site of Drummond's bank, which is the great blot upon every attempt to improve this part of Charing Cross? This bank—of no architectural pretensions—should at once be pulled down, together with the houses adjoining it in Charing Cross as far as the old Admiralty building; Charing Cross could then be widened to 80 or 90 feet, this "bottle-"neck" end of Charing Cross done away with, a better view obtained up to the Houses of Parliament, and a really noble improvement effected.

I have prepared and exhibit a plan showing what I propose in connection with this Charing Cross improvement; the houses to be removed are shown by red dotted lines, and I think the large "place," with its refuges, which could be adorned with shrubs in tubs, would help to give us at least one imposing open space in London.

Trafalgar Square.

I shall not die contented unless I see this gloomy asphalted waste with its two squirts made worthy of its description as the finest site in Europe. I have been at this, off and on, for a quarter of a century, and I think it really within the bounds of reason to hope for something not only "attempted" but "done" to beautify this fine square. Is not this a grand opportunity for one of our millionaires to hand down his name to posterity in a glorious work?

The plan which I exhibit shows the proposed laying out of the square, and the elevation shows one side as I suggest both sides, east and west, should be altered. The present raking sides, the steps at the north-east and north-west angles, and the fountains are eyesores, whilst the statues are out of place.

The main idea which I and Mr. E. Staley (who takes a deep interest in this subject) have, is to make Trafalgar Square our Naval Monumental Centre—forming, in stone and bronze, a complete naval history of Great Britain.

Thus, on each of the four great piers—north, south, east, and west—would be placed sculptural groups, representing respectively the naval victories of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, Trafalgar being the culminating point in 1805. The present Nelson column would remain untouched. The larger piers on the east and west walls would be adorned by minor groups, and the smaller piers by bronze electric lamp standards. The intervening spaces would be filled with wrought iron railings with gilded spear-heads.

The present fountains would be removed and new ones of better plan substituted. In the centre of the fountain to the east would be placed a bronze group of Neptune and Sea Gods (emblematic of the four oceans) and in that to the west a bronze group of Britannia and Mermaids (emblematic of the four members of the United Kingdom).

The entrance to the Tube Station at the south-east part of the square should be covered and rendered sightly by a circular-domed temple of pierced wrought iron work, and a corresponding temple should be placed at the south-west part of the square. Under the dome of the latter should be placed a drinking fountain; one

of the domes should be terminated by a model in iron of the "Great Harry," and the other by one of the "Victory."

The awkward staircases at the north-east and north-west angles of the square and terrace should be removed, the angles squared and the terrace balustrade carried across. A grand staircase, equal in length to the portico of the National Gallery, should be formed in the centre of the north front. Upon the two main piers of this staircase allegorical figures standing on gilded globes should be placed, one with palms representing "Peace," the other with laurels representing "Honour." On the side walls of this staircase should be placed bronze bas-reliefs—similar to those on the Nelson column—representing individual gallantries, such as—

John Davis forcing the North-West Passage.
Drake, first navigator, rounding the Horn.
The famous game of Drake at Plymouth.
Sir Richard Grenville and "The Revenge."
Raleigh's offer to King James.
Death of Blake.
Lord Sandwich blown up with his flag-ship.
Benbow's bravery.
Admiral Byng's famous record.
The exploit of the "Monmouth," &c.

Marble seats should be placed along the east, west, and north walls, and the whole of the present asphalte paving should be taken up; fine axed granite paving, grey and red, designed to suit the square, should be substituted. Shrubs in tubs should be dotted about the square, and water plants placed in the fountains.

I would thus make Trafalgar Square a centre of attraction in London, and so adorn it as to become an

incentive to naval patriotism, and constitute it a tribute to our never-to-be-forgotten naval heroes.

The statues at present in the square are to the memory of military heroes. They should be removed to the Horse Guards' Parade, which might, in its turn, become the military monumental centre.

The "Standard Measures" now on the north side of the square should be removed to the Board of Trade.

The New St. Paul's Bridge.

This grand project, due to the public spirit and munificence of the Corporation of the City of London, affords a fine opportunity for planning and for architectural and engineering skill. I suggest that designs for the work should be invited in open competition from Englishmen only.

Parks, &c.

Our public parks and squares constitute a wise and admirable feature of our Metropolis; but we do not avail ourselves of the opportunities afforded to open them up adequately. In the Paper upon London Improvements, which I read before this Institution on February 22nd, 1886, I suggested the formation of new thoroughfares to open up our parks. For instance—

(1) Continuation of the Haymarket southwards by a new street into the Mall, St. James's Park;

(2) Continuation of Pall Mall westwards by a new street into the Green Park;

(3) New street from Bow Road, at Coborn Street, into Victoria Park.

And no doubt other practical openings up of our parks and squares could be suggested.

Mr. Davidge has made an excellent suggestion for the connection of our parks by a broad tree-planted avenue with green grass and gardens at frequent intervals. His idea would, if carried out, give, as he says, an altogether different character to London. His reference to the opportunity afforded by the banks of the Regent's Canal for shady walks proves that Mr. Davidge has an eye for the picturesque, as well as for the architectural.

The Housing, Town Planning, &c., Act.

I have read Mr. Willmot's Paper with much pleasure, and I can speak from worried experience when I join with those who have taken part in the discussion in thanking him for rendering intelligible an Act quite bewildering in its numerous references to other Acts.

It seems perfectly hopeless to get an Act of Parliament drafted so that those who have to administer it shall easily interpret its clauses. I should have thought that the practical Mr. John Burns would have immortalised himself as the only author of an Act of Parliament understandable of the people.

The three points upon which I fall foul of the Act are:—

(1) Its bureaucratic provisions;
(2) Its far too limited powers of appeal from the decisions of the bureau of the Local Government Board;
(3) Its powers of mischief in dealing with open spaces.

I have not the courage to take up more of the time

of the Meeting in dwelling on Mr. Willmot's Paper, as I have already said too much, in connection with Mr. Davidge's Paper, but I join most heartily in the vote of thanks already passed by previous speakers.

Mr. C. O. Burge (Visitor) said as an English civil engineer who had spent a great number of years in Australia, and having been officially connected in its early stages with the matter of the new capital city which was proposed to be built in Australia, he thought that the Members of The Institution might be interested with a few remarks on the subject.

The position in the colony of New South Wales in which the new capital was to be placed had been the subject of question and debate for the last nine or ten years, but within the last month or two the site had been finally settled, offering a great and almost an unrivalled chance for new town planning. Except for the City of Washington he did not think that there had been a case within centuries where a new town had had to be built upon virgin soil, at all events of anything like the magnitude proposed for this town. The Australians evidently expected it to be a very large city, because they had provided a water supply for 600,000 inhabitants. From his knowledge of Australia and the condition governing this particular question he did not himself believe that the city would be anything like that size. The existing towns of Melbourne and Sydney would in his opinion retain all the commerce of the country and the new capital would be merely an official one, something like Ottawa in Canada.

Considering the great interest taken at the present time in the subject of town planning, he could not

help wondering why no mention of the town had been made in the various papers that he had read or in the lectures that he had attended; it seemed to him that notwithstanding our country formed the nucleus of the largest empire that ever existed, we still retained a great deal of insularity and did not think of anything outside the small isles of Great Britain and Ireland.

Although not yet officially settled, designs for this new city would most probably be open for competition to the whole world, and there was, therefore, a great opportunity for the Members of The Surveyors' Institution to exercise their ability. There was great room for improvement in the planning of most of the Australian cities. He had seen cities in all the continents except South America, and he did not know anywhere where a more stupid, ugly, or inefficient plan for the towns prevailed than in Australia; it was a chess-board plan, with no originality of any sort, and the side streets were generally made as wide as the main streets, which was a great mistake. A friend of his, who was now the Commonwealth statistician and a great mathematician, recommended some years ago for this very plan a cob-web arrangement; that was to say, he worked out some calculations in which he found that a series of hexagons one inside the other connected with diagonals to all the six points was, other things being equal, the easiest and most suitable plan; but other things were not always the same, and it was not always possible to lay out a plan in advance unless you knew the nature of the site. Several cities, as some of the Members might know, were at present laid out on that plan, such as Washington, New Orleans, and the comparatively new city of Dalny, near Port Arthur. Although called so, this plan was not strictly speaking a spider's web,

because—though many people were not aware of it—the circular lines in a spider's web were not concentric —they were helical. The spider, when he was forming his web, made a spiral, and that, of course, was not proposed for any city.

Then there was the Chinese plan. Many of the cities of China were built with the suburbs inside and the city outside. That might form a possible problem for the gentlemen who were going to enter for this competition.

Finally, there was what might be called the picturesque plan, or what he should like to call "the anyhow plan." It was the arrangement carried out by the people in the middle ages, and to his mind it seemed to be the most sensible plan of all. A speaker at the last meeting said (and he perfectly agreed with him) that in any arrangement of this sort the architect ought to be supreme; but, at the same time, the engineer and the surveyor ought to have some say in the matter.

The consulting Board, who had been dealing with the new capital, and who would probably have something to do with the competition, consisted of four gentlemen, but did not include a civil engineer among the number. In the first place there was a politician. They all knew that politicians were very clever at certain kinds of planning, but as a rule they knew nothing of town planning. The second member was Mr. Walter Vernon; a connection, he believed, of a Past-President of The Institution, and one of the ablest architects in New South Wales; he was really the right man in the right place. Then the third member was a surveyor, but a surveyor in Australia did not mean the same thing as a surveyor in England, because he had merely to do with the measurement of land,

and he had no special knowledge of anything in connection with the laying out of a town such as water supply, sewerage, &c. The fourth gentleman was a royal engineer, who also from his profession would have no special knowledge of town planning. The result of that was that a very uneven site for the town was chosen; there was a difference of something like 170 feet between the highest and lowest points in an area only three miles square.

There was at present a small stream running through the area, and by means of dams at either end to bank up and regulate the waters they proposed very properly to have a comparatively large sheet of ornamental water in the centre of the city. That would, no doubt, be a very attractive feature, especially in that climate, but it left on each side a comparatively small area with very considerable differences in levels. Consequently some of the streets would be very steep and quite unfit for tramway work, and in a new city of that magnitude they all looked forward to a good deal of traffic on tramways. In these circumstances it was very probable that competing members would have to adopt what he should call "the "picturesque plan" and let the streets follow their own sweet will along contour lines as much as possible, so that there would necessarily be a great departure from the usual Australian chess-board style.

Mr. Arthur Vernon (Past-President) said it had always seemed to him a fascinating idea that any single person of ordinary capacity should be trusted with the laying out of a new town or city. No doubt they would all agree that while it was easy to look over the various examples of the world and find fault with every one of them, it was extremely difficult, if not quite impossible,

to lay down an empirical rule which should govern the sites of any new towns and the mode of laying them out. There was no doubt that any serious person who had to design a new town would have to consider the best rules upon which a successful town must be laid out, and there were three conditions which were essential to any successful solution of that problem. First of all he must study the climate, secondly he must study the customs and habits of the people, and thirdly, and most important, he must be thoroughly conversant with and adapt his arrangements to the disposition of the land, the water, hills, mountains, and valleys, or the peculiarities of the site upon which the town was to be placed.

Those who had travelled a good deal would notice that the natural instinct of every person devising a house was first of all to suit the climate. If one went to the East one found that in a malarial district such as the Philippines, native houses were carefully put above the reach of the universal miasma being raised 6 to 10 feet off the ground. That involved a sufficient width between the houses to give plenty of fresh air to dry the ground between. It they went to the various countries in southern Europe they would find that the wet which was prevalent in certain districts, showed the necessity of a very wide-spreading roof. He thought that in England they neglected the necessity of wide-spreading roofs; and in a country where they had a difference of about 18 inches of rain in dry parts and 60 inches in wet, they could see the folly of our builders in putting just the same eaves in either case. Some people would tell them that an extra foot of eaves was equal to an extra four and half of brickwork. At all events they knew that a wet district wanted wide roofs. If they had very wide roofs it was obvious that they

would require special arrangements in other respects, a fact which dictated some of the considerations for the planning.

There were other points about climate. They might go into some countries like South Africa, and some parts of America, where they saw the universal verandah. If an American got home and did not find his rocking-chair on the verandah he would probably use language more forcible than correct. So they found throughout Cape Colony in the time when Kruger held his receptions drinking coffee under a wide-spreading verandah. The verandah which was necessary for shelter from the burning sun obscured the light and air unless an ample space was allowed all round the house. In planning a city in the British Isles all these questions would arise in a smaller or larger degree.

Then again, the character and habits of the people were important, and to be successful the town plan must be based upon a careful consideration of those matters. If they went into the southern districts of Spain, such as Andalusia, they found that every decent house must have its patio and its fountain. That was for three reasons: for a sense of security, for privacy, and for shade. Such a plan neccssitated a large area; the best part of the house was obscured from view, and only the inferior windows were presented towards the street. That also applied to other countries. In old countries like Morocco and Southern Italy the habits of the people were different in many respects within narrow limits.

It was apparent to anyone studying the question that the third and most essential point of all was that a town could only be planned successfully after due consideration of all the physical features of the site on which it was proposed to place it. If they looked at

various cities of the world they found some were highly successful, and some seemed to him, as the last speaker said of his adopted country, Australia, very unsuccessful. He was told in Australia that Adelaide was famous for its dust, Melbourne for its wind, and Sydney for its prickly heat. In Adelaide they had a system somewhat like a chess board, but they had a large area round the centre of the city which made a kind of park, a lovely and refreshing place, in which the inhabitants could walk in the heat of the day, and obtain shelter to a large extent from the dust, and always from the sun. In Melbourne they had made a great mistake; they had, in the old part of the city, Collins Street, in which magnificent buildings were placed side by side with comparative hovels, a grandly laid out street, but the wind at Melbourne blew as it listed up that street, and the traveller suffered. Melbourne in the old part did not impress one as being a successful and well laid out city, but the suburbs made up for it. He thought St. Kilda had many charms of beauty, arranged as it was round the sides of the beautiful bay. But dear old Sydney, with its unrivalled harbour and haphazard streets, was picturesque and delightful.

With regard to the arrangement of a city, he thought that a site ought first to be chosen which would suit the people. Probably that had been done in the case of the new Federal capital for the great Australian Commonwealth. No doubt after all the time they had taken they had pitched upon a site which was perfect naturally, and he hoped competition and the skill of Australians and the rest of those who might compete would give their magnificent site a beautiful city. If it did not beat Washington it would be very unfortunate. Washington had been called the city of magnificent distances, it

had marvellous streets wearisome to the traveller, of huge length and portentous width only half filled up. It looked like a dream of the gods that some future centuries might fill. Washington was still a city of magnificent distances and unfulfilled dreams. It was not sufficiently full of trees or shade to satisfy anyone.

Montreal, of all the cities in the old and new hemisphere, was one of the best, and most nearly fulfilled all the conditions. It had three features which were delightful beyond imagination. It had the glorious St. Lawrence—over which Mr. Brassey, an English contractor, had thrown that wonderful bridge—rolling and tossing, and singing its own song day and night at the foot of this great city. Running up gradually and sloping towards the mountain which gave its name to the city was a beautiful town full of wide open expanses and rectangular streets. At the back one saw Mont Real, a handsome hill, which furnished a pleasure-ground for the living, and a cemetery for the dead. What could they want more? It had its Snow Palace in the winter, and it was one of the most delightful, picturesque, and well-arranged cities it had been his lot to see.

Denver, lying near the foot of the Rockies, was another almost perfect city. It was an absolute chess board, a new city arranged by the latest and best of the American architects; it was full of wonderful buildings, and it was already fairly filled up. They had tramways everywhere, four or five tracks along the roads; nothing seemed overcrowded, there was plenty of width, and except for the want of trees Denver might be taken as one of the most beautiful cities in the world. It had two wants. It had no magnificent river or great lake like some of the American cities, and there was not

sufficient hilly ground to give it diversity, but for all that it was one of the most remarkable and beautiful of modern cities. Even these cities left much to be desired. They knew Nature hated right angles, and delighted in variety. No city could quite satisfy an artistic eye that did not give a large amount of variety, and as few right angles as possible. One could not help a certain number, but whoever planned a city should do it with as many gentle curves and as few horrid square angles as need be.

A large number of accidents happened at crossings every year. This should be avoided, and he did not see why main crossings should not dip under and over like railways did; it did not require a great depth above or a great drop below if the one went a little up and the other a little down. Why should our main arteries of traffic be impeded and the public be continually losing their lives? A little while ago it was three a week in London and now it was probably more. Why should not a city be arranged with its main arteries of traffic like railways, free from all such risks? He thought with cross roads of different levels they might have a very great advantage.

The new Act seemed to him, subject to certain blemishes which were apparent, to be of great value. He supposed there had not been ten new cities laid out in the old country during the last 100 years. They had heard of three or four comparatively small garden cities, but he did not think that any of them could expect to have the opportunity of laying out any cities in England. It had been his lot to lay out a few very small garden cities of under 100 acres each which accommodated a great many people, and he had always found himself restricted first of all by the local by-laws. It seemed to

him absurd that the smallest streets should be 36 feet wide. In many cases the smallest streets might with advantage and economy be much narrower, but it all depended on the surroundings. In many cases 40 feet was the minimum, which made an absurd cost for the cheaper class of house and tended to raise the rent at which those houses could be let.

On the other hand, in the city of Winnipeg, in Canada, a great mistake had been made in not laying it out wide enough; they had laid out the main street at a width of two chains, but the city had grown so fast that that 132 feet was fast becoming overcrowded, and they now saw that they ought to have laid it out wider. In England 132 feet sounded a magnificent width, but there was one street at Chicago running along by the side of a magnificent lake which he supposed was the finest thoroughfare in the world, about 300 feet wide and contained five tracks about five miles long, viz., two tramway tracks, two tracks for carriages, and one for people in the middle; it had plenty of trees and was beautifully shaded, indeed it was the most glorious thoroughfare anyone could desire to see. It had one drawback, it suffered from its length, you could not see the distance; you could walk on and on for a long time before you saw the end, and that was wearisome.

He saw in a pamphlet discussing this matter, published by a conference held recently at Westminster, two examples of streets which struck him very forcibly. One was a most artistic picture of the High Street of Oxford, which curves; the other was the Rue de Rivoli, Paris—absolutely straight. Anyone looking at them side by side would see what a delightful advantage a gentle curve gave to a street without lessening the value, interfering with the public advantage, or adding

cost to the builders. He suggested that with this new Act large discretion would have to be given or else certain modifications would have to be made which would give more opportunity of indulging in those artistic effects.

He did not believe that the small local authorities of England were the best adapted to decide these things, and he did not at all like the tendency of recent legislation which was to give to the Local Government Board or some Department of Government the right of acting in a judicial capacity as to their own errors and mistakes. That was un-English and clearly contrary both to public advantage and to reasonable local liberty.

To sum up the few words he had to say, he did not believe the rectangular or chess-board style could ever be quite satisfactory. It might be applied to part of a city, but Heaven help the poor artistic inhabitant who has to live in one that had nothing else. The spider's web was, of course, admirably adapted to catch flies, but whatever might be the exact shape in which the spider spun those beautiful lines he did not think that on a large scale it would facilitate getting from one part of the city to another.

The circle Ringstrasse at Vienna, although accidental, was very fine and might sometimes be adopted, but it was not always possible, and curvilinear line throughout would not always suit the lie of the land. With respect to what Mr. Burge called the picturesque way, which was one's own sweet will, he thought that its beauty, advantage, and success would depend upon who was the owner of the sweet will ; he would have to be a very clever man who would bring it to a satisfactory conclusion.

If he were asked to formulate the rules for a new

city, they would be somewhat as follows: First, they must not forget the climate; secondly, they must think of the habits and customs of the people; and thirdly, they must say to the surveyor, civil engineer, the politician and the adroit statesman "you must arrange it so as to suit "the site." He thought the site should be suited to the city first, and then all the streets and lines should be suited to the site. He remembered San Francisco, where they had promenades up and down hills which were straight but too steep for carriage traffic.

The position seemed to be very similar to the story told of the Emperor Nicholas the First, who, when ordering a railway to be built from St. Petersburg to Moscow, objected to his engineer wandering amongst the towns, and took his rule and laid the line himself from Moscow to St. Petersburg, and said, "That is my will." The railway was built, but of course it has been unsuccessful and has never paid its way. He believed San Francisco was arranged without studying the site. The roads did not follow the curves of the hills; they were too steep for use, and part of San Francisco was an abomination.

The other part was very good. He believed in all new cities they would have to consider carefully the adaptation of the roads, plans, and lines to the exact site, to consider picturesqueness, facility for travelling and economy of cost, to give to a city what was wanted, happiness in living in it, and prosperity and success to those who carried on their trade in it.

Mr. H. V. Lanchester (Visitor) said he had no doubt that all the members of their profession, both architects and surveyors, must feel very gratified by the attention that had been given by that and other pro-

fessional societies to the subject of Mr. Davidge's interesting Paper. He thought they did not realise that satisfactory town planning was by no means so easily achieved as many people seemed to imagine. They knew that the municipal officials in Germany had been dealing with the matter for the past thirty years, but although he did not think he was exaggerating when he said they were superior as a body to our own local authorities, they yet found that they had made many mistakes, and had by no means reached finality in their methods.

In America they had taken up the matter in a very successful way. In the large towns they had got what politicians called *ad hoc* committees quite apart from the governing body of the town; they were selected from the principal bodies, the chambers of commerce, the universities, professional societies, and so on. The schemes prepared were being constantly revised and reconsidered, and all classes of citizens were taking a very keen interest in them. In some cases large sums had been devoted to the preparation of comprehensive reports in which any new or alternative proposal was most carefully dealt with by those best qualified to pronounce on it. He did not know whether they had seen the new Chicago report, a most magnificent book produced by the Commercial Club of Chicago, and written and worked out by a big Chicago architect. It was illustrated by drawings by well-known American artists, and although they probably would not agree with a great many of its conclusions, it was a valuable addition to the literature on the subject. The State of Massachusetts, which was the controlling body for Boston, had nominated six men who had produced a very comprehensive report on the town. That followed another report on some very

interesting studies of improvements in that city produced by the Boston Society of Architects on their own initiative. The older report of the Washington Committee was also a work of the utmost value, because it reviewed cities all over the world with a view to various works which were proposed in Washington.

Mr. Vernon had mentioned Washington as an unsatisfactory city, and he (the speaker) agreed with him for several reasons. The great difficulty was the American insistence at that time on the gridiron plan, the square plan, on which was superposed L'Enfant's scheme of radiating streets. That gave a lot of awkward intersections between the radial streets and the square ones, and the result was that many of the roads that ought to have been the finest avenues were cut up by the number of streets that ran off them at very oblique angles, and instead of seeing fine streets they got little bits of streets with buildings running back which destroyed the effect.

He quite agreed with the last speaker that elected authorities, at all events in this country, were not necessarily the best qualified to deal with questions of this kind, and it was essential that no scheme should be adopted unless it were the outcome of the most efficient and detailed consideration by men of trained ability and experience, dealing with the architectural, hygienic, and commercial aspects, and the local conditions and aspirations. If such a course were not adopted, and the work was left in the hands of official bodies, they would buy their experience by a series of costly and irretrievable mistakes. For example, a mass of information must be collected on the various points enumerated by the last speaker in the matter of climate, customs and habits, and topography. He (Mr. Lanchester) had made out a rough

schedule to show the character of the information required; population, rateable value, general district rate, poor rate; acreage, divided as follows:—acreage built over, acreage of streets, public open spaces, agricultural and unoccupied spaces, water, such as rivers, lakes, &c., and the total. Then they came to soil, levels, general aspect, the general temperature of the city, mean temperature, rainfall and climatic notes. Then, taking the separate areas of the city, employment, outdoor and indoor (men and women), the average attendance at schools, libraries and museums, places of entertainment, baths, outdoor sports and games. Over and above that there were a number of special and local characteristics to be taken into consideration, and a careful study of the trend of the various component parts of the city was necessary; for instance, where manufactures seemed to be spreading out—why they should be there, and other similar matters. If they worked against the natural laws and the natural development of the city they would only be doing harm instead of good.

He had a few lantern slides, and would begin by supplementing Mr. Davidge's clear sub-division of the types of town plans by one or two examples that he would claim attention for as being particularly interesting. Mr. Davidge had divided town plans generally into rectilineal, triangular, radiating, and irregular classes. A plan designed for Detroit after the fire of 1806 showed a most skilful combination from the geometrician's point of view, of the triangular and the rectangular systems. They would see that there was a complete system of rectangular streets and also a complete system of triangular ones. This plan had been in part carried out, and it was a great pity they never went on further with it, the rest of the city being on a

monotonous rectangular system. It was at first a little difficult to see how the plan was worked, but it was a system of equilateral triangles and rectangles. Of course, the site of that city was absolutely flat, so they had had a free hand to develop what geometrical patterns they liked.

The next slide gave a plan designed by Mr. Sulman irrespective of site, as a suggestion for grouping the radiating, the triangular, and the rectangular systems for the new Australian federal capital. They would see there that the main lines were radiating with some very interesting tangential intersections resulting in squares and triangles, which were filled in with rectangular blocks. They must finally get more or less down to those rectangular blocks because they always built in rectangular form. He meant that if they built up solidly they wanted a certain degree of rectangularity about the final sub-divisions. Of course Mr. Sulman's plan showed a number of intersecting points, which was perhaps its weakness.

He felt he must refer to M. Hènard of Paris. Unfortunately he had not any plan of his there, but he had pointed out the undesirability of bringing a number of radiating streets to a single focus, or into a very limited area, as tending to create an unnecessary congestion of traffic in one place. His plans for the improvement of Paris, some of which it seemed probable were going to be carried out, were made with a view to spreading the actual centre of the town. The traffic was unnecessarily wedged into one spot, and he was going to try and spread that traffic out a little so as to get over the difficulty of the present congestion.

He would like to add a few remarks on the proportion of streets. They had no doubt recognised that a

long and important street, particularly if straight, demanded an effect of breadth in one form or another; but their present regulations indicated that they were far from appreciating the proper ratio between the breadth of a street and the height of its buildings. He had examined a number of thoroughfares that either failed or succeeded in satisfying one's æsthetic instincts, with the result that he believed it was possible to lay down the following rough and ready rule: the height of the buildings should not exceed two-thirds of the width between them unless it were at least one and a half times the width. (Diagrams illustrating the speaker's views were here shown.)

He acknowledged that a number of streets could be pointed out which were quite narrow, with buildings towering up high on each side, as, for example, Lombard Street, and which still appeared to be pleasantly proportioned. It was when the height of the buildings was practically equal to the width of the street that the proportion was decidedly unsatisfactory. Northumberland Avenue, for instance, came under this category. They had not the vertical feeling that they would get in the narrow street, and they had not the feeling of breadth and spaciousness that they would get in the wide street. He was bound to say that when they had broken skylines or the curved streets it was not so noticeable, but with the straight street they should certainly attempt either the narrow proportion or the broad and spacious one. The former would, of course, be quite unsuited to residential districts, because it would shut out too much light and air, and in such districts the height of the buildings should not exceed two-thirds of the width of the street. There was no necessity to make it all street; there might be gardens or something of that sort

giving the required width. In streets of the narrow type, especially running east and west, they should arrange breaks to let in the sun.

He was not quite sure of Mr. Davidge's views on the question of tree planting, but he thought he would agree with him that they made a mistake in planting a busy street with a continuous avenue. Trees so placed generally had a miserable struggle for existence, and compared most unfavourably with those massed together in squares and gardens. In Hènard's "boulevard à redans" the trees had a better chance. He recessed his buildings with little courtyards, and put, say, four trees in each instead of putting them on the pavement. He did this with a mechanical repetition, and the effect, he thought, was somewhat monotonous, while the small recessed courtyards would be of less utility in this country than abroad. Here they would do better to break the line of the street by setting back the frontages here and there, and planting groups of trees in the recesses. The Ringstrasse in Vienna was an example of this, and they would notice in the view shown that the trees were not continuous, and that they would get practically as much value out of them in that way as if they were planted continuously.

There was also another consideration, the trees were not cramped against the buildings, and stood a better chance if they were grouped like that. They would also get a very much more lively effect than they would with a continuous street, owing to the variety of light and shade on the return fronts.

He would like also to draw attention to the charming way in which they ornamented lamp standards with actually growing flowers, kept up all through the summer. This improvement would of course cost money, but it

would add greatly to the appearance of the streets, and he thought the streets in Vienna had a gayer appearance even than the streets of Paris.

The question of traffic across intersecting roads had arisen. Of course, they knew the solution that M. Hènard had advocated, which he thought was credited to Mr. Holroyd Smith—the "Carrefour di Giration." They had not many open spaces large enough for that circle of giration. He had always noticed in London that when they had only two lines of traffic crossing the police regulation was very good; they stopped the one line and let the other one through. This did not, however, work well when a vehicle wanted to turn to the right. He therefore suggested that some sort of modification might be made by which room should be provided in the centre for parking the traffic. If there were room for vehicles to park themselves in the middle, the traffic could go on until the space was filled, and then the police could stop the traffic and the parked vehicles would be released to lead the traffic in the reverse direction.

With regard to unregulated crossings in London, crossings which were not sufficiently important for police regulation, there was a very great danger. Of course with the greatly increased speed of traffic, if no notice were given, serious accidents were very liable to occur. There had been many fatal accidents in the country as the result of two motors meeting at cross roads without being aware of each other's existence until they met. All the crossings in the country ought certainly to be spread out, and some obstruction should be placed in the centre to compel motors to make a turn and to reduce their speed in order to make that turn. In the city, of course, it would be much better where they had an unimportant crossing to try and avoid placing the two side

roads opposite each other. The more important road should run through, but the side road need not do so. Although that would rather spoil the ordinary rectangular plan it would certainly avoid a great many chances of accidents.

He desired to point out that in a great many cases the widening of streets was a mistake. It very often destroyed the trade of the street for a long time owing to the amount of pulling down. People also got a distaste for the street when they saw great blank spots to be filled in and the tradesmen had often complained bitterly of trade being drawn away by the fact that the street had been widened. He believed that it would frequently be much more economical and would often preserve old and interesting buildings if they could widen or make a new line of street in close proximity to the existing one, and utilise one for traffic in one direction and one for traffic in the other. He would take Bond Street and Albermarle Street and a line from Albermarle Street to Woodstock Street as an example. There would be very little difficulty in arranging that. In Bond Street no traffic should be allowed southward, and in Albermarle Street no traffic should be allowed northward. Supposing, starting from Piccadilly, they wanted to pay a call at a shop half way up Bond Street they would drive up, and if they wanted to get back they had only to continue up Bond Street to Conduit Street and to turn down Albermarle Street. In the same way if they wanted to reach the same spot from Oxford Street they would drive round Woodstock Street end and circulate up by Bond Street.

Before passing to the question of parks he wanted to show them two or three types of the closing up and completing the effect of a public square. There were three typical ways of doing this; one was by putting

buildings to cover the outlets from the square. The Madeleine, at the outlet to the Place de la Concorde was an instance of this method, and he thought that the way in which the architect had connected this building with the two blocks on either side and completed the composition of that side of the square was admirable. A picture of the Plaza de Commercio at Lisbon showing how the façades were connected there by a triumphal arch leading into the principal street illustrated the second method. A somewhat similar treatment had been adopted with one of the squares at Nancy, where a colonnade completed the open space and linked up the buildings. He thought that those three pictures showing how spaces were linked up might form a pendant to Mr. Davidge's remarks on the subject.

With regard to parks there was one point he wished to raise, and that related to the importance of having some sort of ante-room, as it were, or approach to a park instead of suddenly coming out of a business street straight into a public park. Mr. Woodward had suggested making streets leading to parks, but he (the speaker) did not think that was sufficient. They wanted to suggest and create the impression that one was coming to a park before one got there.

There were numerous American publications on the subject of public parks, and he had been much indebted to them when writing an article on "Park Systems," which appeared in *The Builder*, in October, 1908. He would like to make a few quotations from these authorities: "In the case of the parks and reservations, "it has been the object to include (1) The places which "are of the greatest present value for public resort, where "open spaces are most necessary, or which deserve preser- "vation for their natural beauty, attractiveness, or "historical interest. (2) The areas which are ill adapted

" or unduly expensive for development for commercial or " residential purposes, or are otherwise destined to be " plague spots or slums." (Incidentally the setting aside the picturesque spots for such improvement will increase the value of their respective neighbourhoods and provide desirable residential places in the vicinity.) " In accord- " ance with these general principles, as far as remains " possible, we must set aside the following kinds of " territory: (1) Steep and rocky hills, and ground which " is very broken and uneven, especially if wooded. " (2) Ponds, lakes, and bay shores. (3) Valleys of little " rivers. These classes of property, though steadily being " encroached upon, yet remain to a wonderful degree " attractive and available for public uses." (That was more with reference to a particular case.) " So far as " possible, hill tops should be taken in entirely above the " lines of convenient building operations, and the bound- " aries of such reservations should extend far enough " below the crest to give a proper view, both of and from " the hill. Where this is not feasible, on account of the " value of the property, a screen of trees should be called " for. Ponds and lakes are set aside almost without " exception. Filling or dumping in any part destroys for " very many years all property in the neighbourhood of " their shores. 'Boundary roads' are generally recom- " mended, giving pleasant opportunity for promenades " and desirable sites for buildings facing the parks. The " surrounding or bordering strips vary greatly in width, " but the swampy edges or precipitous sides may be con- " sidered generally valueless for other than park pur- " poses. All small rivers running through populous " districts should have their immediate shores reserved, " except at places where the water power is deemed of " too great value."

(They were at the present time trying to do something

in this country with the River Wandle, which was encouraging, and he hoped the Brent Valley would be treated in the same way. He thought there were some signs of movement taking place with regard to it.) "Most land which is periodically overflowed should be "treated as a reservation because of the engineering "works otherwise necessary to reclaim it and control "the floods. There is no question about the desirability "of reserving such land for parks. In addition to the "above a few tracts have been suggested which, owing "to the needs of their surroundings congested popula- "tions, or for their historic and picturesque interest "although they are of some value for 'productive' pur- "poses may be considered as of still greater value for "public uses. The proposed connecting parkways, "drives, and boulevards are considered with relation to "their (1) Directions in giving access from one reserva- "tion to the next. (2) Value as highways to connect "various populous districts of the city which now lack "'cross-town' accommodation. (3) Avoidance of "valuable buildings. (4) Greatest ease of grades. (5) "Cheapness, the least valuable land being taken. (6) "Development of property through which they pass "into valuable building sites. In some sections it will "be considered best that they take a formal character, "but generally by being built on gentle though not too "indirect curves, following to a great extent the con- "formation of land, they are cheaper to build, and also "more beautiful than streets laid out on ordinary "lines."

In reference to the possibilities for London he had, in his article, made a kind of sketch attempting to do what Mr. Davidge suggested, namely, to take stock of their parks, open places, watercourses, and commons. Of course it was but the merest sketch to accompany a

demand for the public treatment of the question and to use as the basis of an attack on the "ring" system as compared with the "radial" system in the distribution of parks and park connections. Mr. Davidge was, he saw, faithful to the "ring," but he had great hopes of convincing him that this ideal was only an arbitary one based on the removal of city fortifications and had no *raison d'ètre* in this country. The radial system of acquiring parks had also the advantage over the "ring" system of being cheaper, because they could buy out in the country in advance of their requirements and perhaps lease the land until it was wanted. Naturally, people in the city tended to walk out into the country and then they had a park to walk out through. Based upon some such hint as that he had a couple of plans there that he suggested for these London parks; one showed a sketch of north London with the existing parks in black, and the proposed additions in black with small white dots. That was made with a view chiefly to pick out the river valleys and connect up some of the existing parks. The long stretch on the right was Epping Forest lying between the River Lea and the River Roden. If the valleys of those two rivers were extended it would form a convenient annexe to the forest. This was not such an urgent case really as that of the River Brent, which would rapidly become wrecked by building operations if it were not preserved as a strip of park land.

Other parts of the map showed some of the arteries and parkways that were suggested, and they followed very much the idea that Mr. Davidge had put forward. It was rather curious to note that No. 5 there was carried along the north bank of the canal. It was part of the Grand Junction Canal, and that boulevard was carried along the north bank just in the way Mr. Davidge

had suggested for using the attractions of water in making public boulevards.

The next slide dealt with the south of London, and the only point he wanted to note there was that he did not follow Mr. Davidge's suggestion of linking up with Battersea Park, because he did not see any way of doing it. There were so many railway lines there that any boulevard would either be a bridge half a mile long or a tunnel more or less the same length. A bridge on a windy day was not the sort of boulevard which would attract the public, and he did not think a tunnel would be attractive at any time. He himself suggested what he called a royal avenue leading from Windsor Park, running round by the Thames Valley through Bushey Park, Richmond Park, and finally arriving at the end of the Broad Walk in Kensington Gardens. It really did not go through any property of value except through Fulham, but if they were only prepared to launch out into Parisian methods, a magnificent avenue leading from the heart of the West End out to Windsor Castle could be made.

Mr. Lanchester said he was afraid he had already overstayed his time, but he would like, before resuming his seat, to call attention to a model he had had made suggesting a way of getting over the difficulty that always arose with regard to the levels of London bridges. St. Paul's bridge at the present moment presented great difficulties in levels. In that model, which they could see after the meeting, a method was suggested by which they could drop from the high side of the river to the low.

Mr. Speaight (Visitor) said that he had not had the pleasure of listening to Mr. Wilmot's Paper but that he was present when Mr. Davidge read his Paper, and although that event happened as far back as November

last, and notwithstanding the fact that he had passed through many festivities since then, he had a very pleasant and vivid recollection of that interesting and instructive Paper. He would like to be allowed, on behalf of the visitors who were then present, to express their appreciation for the benefit and instruction which they had received from the Paper.

One's experience of Papers on town planning, at least as far as he was concerned, was the unfortunate fact that so many of the proposals which they contained were impracticable. When he listened to Mr. Davidge's Paper he felt very pleased during the first three-quarters of it to find that no proposal was put forward which was not absolutely possible, but he hoped that Mr. Davidge would pardon his criticising his suggestion about parkways. To carry out these parkways would involve an expenditure of many millions, and would necessitate, as his friend Mr. Lanchester had pointed out, the doing away with a certain amount of railway communication in the neighbourhood of Battersea.

He would like to be allowed to make the suggestion to their Society, and also to other learned societies, that they should pass a resolution forbidding any of their members ever to propose any public improvement unless at the same time the proposal were accompanied by a financial statement of how much it was likely to cost, and how that money could be obtained. He made that remark in no frivolous manner, but because if proposals were put forward by distinguished members of their society which they must confess were financially impracticable, and at the same time sound and possible proposals were also put forward, the man in the street, who after all had to deal with these questions, would receive both alike as the dreams of artists, and would not pay

their practical suggestions the attention which they otherwise ought to have commanded.

It was very delightful to see the attention which was being paid by The Surveyors' Institution and the Royal Society of British Architects to town planning, and he thought that the inspiration which the members obtained through annual excursions to foreign cities seemed to have a very good effect upon them, but they seemed to anticipate that similar magnificent roads and places were likely to be formed shortly in the city in which they practised. He thought however that they must all bear in mind, first of all, that these large spaces and magnificent streets which they admired were the outcome of a great deal of smaller artistic development which had not at present taken place in their midst. He thought that if they looked to the early history of those cities they would find in the first place that the citizens were educated to admire things that were beautiful. Beauty in detail was very important, and he would much rather have heard Mr. Davidge invite his fellow surveyors to go to such a city as Florence, for instance, to admire the beautiful lamp standards that were placed in front of the cathedral there in order that they might bring influence to bear upon the importance of some such small things as even lamp standards in the streets of London. Mr. Davidge, instead of putting forward his system of parkways, should have invited his fellow surveyors to go to such a city as Venice and admire the beautiful standards that stood in front of the cathedral there also, in order that they might deal with the festive decorations in the city by using something more permanent and ornamental than the rickety scaffolding poles covered with turkey twill that was always used on those occasions. Mr. Davidge might also have invited them to go to St. James's Palace, and called their atten-

tion to the beautiful name plates there. They should make a beginning to beautify the city in such small details, and then they would feel that those small details were worthy of better surroundings.

Mr. Woodward had put forward an idea for the improvement of Trafalgar Square. Mr. Woodward would be surprised that anyone should disagree with him, but he did not think himself that such a proposal as that suggested would be an improvement. He would much rather Mr. Woodward had appealed to his fellow surveyors to bring about a different treatment of the painting of the building on the east side of Trafalgar Square. They had there a building of one design partly occupied by the Union Club and partly by the Royal College of Physicians. Half of it was painted white and the other half was left in its natural colour. That, he thought, was the greatest disfigurement of Trafalgar Square, and the decorative treatment of that building as a whole would be a greater improvement than any ornamentation of the square such as was put forward on the cartoon at the end of the room.

He did not purpose occupying their time much further, except that he had been asked to show one or two views of the Marble Arch alterations with which his name had been connected. The Marble Arch alterations or improvement had been criticised very severely by Mr. Woodward and by other experts on town planning. It had been complained that he had not suggested doing away with the stables at the Park Lane corner and that the arch was left in the roadway. The Marble Arch, he believed, was removed to its present position from the front of Buckingham Palace some fifty years back, and almost ever since it was erected on its present site there had been inquiries and discussions held as to how the traffic could be relieved at that spot. Every

one of those inquiries, even the recent one that had been held by the Royal Commission on London Traffic, suggested that the Marble Arch should be removed, and the reason why this had never been done was because the authorities would not entertain the idea. One therefore felt that the only possible way to bring about an improvement was to put forward some proposal which did not interfere with the Arch. The picture on the screen showed a scheme providing for the arch to remain the centre of the architectural treatment, and they would see that a screen of a circular nature was brought into the treatment. That was deemed too expensive a scheme owing to the necessity of removing the stables in Park Lane, and Mr. Harcourt had asked him to prepare an alternative which would not interfere with this property.

The next picture showed the manner in which he would have liked to have seen the Marble Arch treated, with masts erected in the blank spaces, based upon the examples he had referred to in front of St. Mark's, which might also have been used for electric lights and on occasions of festivities for a display of flags without the necessity for disfiguring the roads by scaffolding poles as at present. The alternative suggestion he had submitted, and which had been carried out, left the Arch in the same position, and the screen was kept far enough back to enable the traffic from Park Lane to pass behind the Arch to Edgware Road without clashing with the traffic in front.

Some people still said that the Arch should be placed back to form an entrance to the park, and that in its present position it was useless and in the way. He did not agree. It was not in the way, because it was not in the line of traffic; it divided the traffic, and, as far as his small experience went, a triumphant arch in a foreign city was invariably treated as

a monument and not as an entrance or as forming part of a screen. One saw examples in Paris and in Rome, and in almost every foreign city where the arch was treated as a monument. In this case it answered a particular purpose, because it was on the direct line of route to the royal entrance to the park, and His Majesty when leaving the park drove under the arch, and therefore that justified its retention in the position in which it was left.

With reference to those small details to which he had referred about the building in Trafalgar Square, it only required a little agitation, especially coming from Members occupying their influential position, to bring about alterations. It was only five or six weeks ago that at the Royal Institute of British Architects he had drawn attention to the untidy flower tubs that disfigured the front of the Royal Exchange. They were leaky, shabby, and quite an eye-sore, and to his mind spoilt the whole of the effect. Within ten days of his criticism those tubs had been quietly taken away. He thought this ought to encourage bolder spirits than himself to have a shot at that building in Trafalgar Square.

The PRESIDENT said that, as it was now getting late, and as there must be other gentlemen who would like to continue the discussion, he thought it would be better to adjourn the meeting till the following fortnight. He observed that Mr. Ebenezer Howard was present, and as they would all like to hear him speak about the Garden City, he hoped he would be able to take part in the discussion on that occasion, and to illustrate his remarks with a few lantern slides. Their two friends who had read the Papers would also be able to reply to the comments that had been made upon them.

The Meeting then adjourned.

AT

THE ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING,

Held on Monday, 7th February, 1910.

ALEXANDER ROSE STENNING (President) in the Chair.

The adjourned discussion on Mr. Davidge's Paper on "Town Planning Systems," read at the Ordinary General Meeting on 22nd November, 1909, and on Mr. John Willmot's Paper on "The Housing, Town Planning, &c., "Act, 1909," read at the Ordinary General Meeting on 10th January, 1910, was resumed by

Mr. EBENEZER HOWARD (Visitor), who said the subject of town planning naturally divided itself into two main branches: (1) Plans for the improvement, reconstruction, or extension of existing towns and cities; and (2) Plans for the creation of entirely new towns.

The first branch of the subject having been fully dealt with in the able Papers of Mr. Davidge and Mr. Willmot, and in the interesting discussions which had followed them, he proposed to confine his remarks to the second branch—the planning of new towns. He hoped to show that, important as the first branch of the subject undoubtedly was, especially in an old country like England, the second branch was also of great importance, not only from the point of view of the new towns which would be built in this country at no distant

date, but because of the direct and indirect effects which would be produced on the old towns through the force of example of the new.

In order to make his remarks as concrete as possible, he proposed to deal with the question of town planning of new areas in the light of experience gained at Letchworth.

Letchworth, the first and only garden city in England —for with deference to Mr. Vernon, there could be no garden city built on 100 or even on 1,000 acres of land— was the largest and most far-reaching example of town planning yet before the country. The results attained by the First Garden City Company had been attained, not by Act of Parliament, but by friendly bargaining between that company and the various owners of land whose properties made up its compact estate of 3,818 acres; by friendly business relationships established between the company and the Great Northern Railway and the various local authorities within whose area the estate was situated; by the active co-operation of numerous manufacturers and traders who had for business reasons established their works or their enterprises on parts of the estate specially assigned for such purposes; by the financial aid of the Land Drainage Company and the Public Works Loan Commissioners, and by the assistance of a body of residents and friends interested in the work, who, by their talents, their goodwill and their enthusiasm, had caused the garden city to throb with a healthier life and energy than was to be found in any other town of its size in England, or probably in few places of its size through the Colonies or in America.

The essential element in any scheme of town planning —as indeed in any plan of any kind—was the object

sought to be realised. Did one wish to create a new capital worthy of a federation of great colonies, as in Australia (the chief subject of Mr. Burge's remarks), then site, area, geographical position, as well as hosts of other matters, must be considered and weighed with a view to the magnificent end sought to be achieved. What, then, were the chief objects sought in founding the first garden city? The objects were manifold; but doubtless the chief object, and that which appealed to more supporters than any other, was to set before the country an object lesson, based on sound business principles, in the creation of healthy conditions of factory and home life. Now to do that well involved a clean sheet and a free hand, it involved also a bold and comprehensive experiment. Those considerations coupled with the fact that industries were, even at the time when he first conceived of the idea of a garden city (about 1888), leaving the large cities for country towns, naturally suggested the idea of building an entirely new industrial town, as an enlargement upon the already successfully established industrial villages of Bournville and Port Sunlight. But here yet further considerations naturally came into play. An industrial town which was simply an industrial town was a very undesirable place for anybody to live in. Such a town emphasised and perpetuated class distinctions, and tended to become mean if not squalid. Hence the idea suggested itself that the new town should be so planned as to unite residential with industrial elements, and this idea in turn led to the possibility of combining in one great experiment the advantages of town and country life, so that the countryman should gain many of the advantages and opportunities of the town, and the townsman many of the advantages and delights of the country. These

and other considerations inevitably involved a garden city—that was a town so planned as permanently to combine the often opposed but essentially reconcilable elements of town and country life.

This brought them at once to the first distinguishing feature of any real garden city—its agricultural belt. The estate at Letchworth consisted of 3,800 acres. Of this 1,200 acres were reserved for the town proper, and the surrounding 2,600 acres were reserved as an agricultural belt; in this latter, besides a number of good-sized farms, there were a number of small holdings, a branch of the subject which though of great importance he must pass by with just this reference that small holdings next a growing town should attain greater success than small holdings remote from any market.

Bearing in mind the objects which he had thus touched upon it would be seen that in order to build a garden city one must, as Mr. Vernon had suggested at their last meeting, deliberately select a site suitable for the purpose. Now Letchworth, as results had abundantly proved, was well chosen for the scene of a first venture in this field of deliberate city building; a field which (notwithstanding all the scepticism he had heard expressed in that room during the present discussion and during a similar discussion in 1904) he predicted with absolute confidence would be worked actively and successfully by many members of their creative profession. Letchworth was 34 miles from London, and there were few places at that distance which could be reached so quickly, numerous trains covering the distance in from 50 minutes to one hour. The estate stood high above most of the surrounding country, and was particularly healthy.

In its central or town area the site was sufficiently

level to make the cost of road making quite reasonable, and yet sufficiently undulating to give interest and variety, and to prevent the town planner committing the crime of laying out too many straight streets. The whole of the town area was capable of being drained to one place. There was an abundant supply of water obtained from the chalk, and pumped through two tubes 16 inches in diameter, lined with steel and going down about 200 feet, up to a reservoir which commanded the whole site. So abundant was the supply that Letchworth was not only able to provide for its own needs, both present and future, but it was also able to provide for the needs of the neighbouring town of Baldock. This was very fortunate for Baldock, because that little town had come under the repeated censure of the Local Government Board for deficiencies in this important respect, which had led to serious outbreaks of disease. Further, the estate contained an area of very fairly level land suitable for factory purposes. This area was intersected by the railways, so that sidings could be easily laid into the factories. Fortunately it was land that could be put to such uses without appreciably lessening the amenities of the town, for the area in question was to the east of the town, the prevailing winds being from the south-west, and it was screened by a hill from the greater part of the town.

From a residential point of view the estate was in parts both beautiful and picturesque, and contained a natural park of 65 acres known as Norton Common, quite near the centre of the town. There was also a fine old manor house—Letchworth Hall—now used as an hotel, which was situated near another fine park-like space, part of which was used as a golf course.

A minor principle which should be borne in mind in

constructing a new town was not to allow the town to grow from its centre, but to cause it to grow around its centre, reserving the centre for later development. The reason for this was obvious. The first comers to the town might not be prepared to erect the kind of buildings which would be required later on, and which should be found near the centre, nor prepared to pay the ground rent which should be demanded for central sites.

So far he had dealt mainly with the objects and purposes sought to be attained. The question now arose: "How far had these objects been carried out?" Let the facts supply the answer. The garden city estate had been purchased from a number of landowners for the sum of about £170,000. That sum, representing as it did £40 an acre, including buildings and timber, was certainly somewhat more than the land would have realised if it had been thrown on the market. Yet doubtless when it was by this process welded into one compact estate it had for the required purposes quite the value paid for it.

The prospectus of the First Garden City, Limited, issued in 1903, had not at once met with the response from the British public that it should have done. It asked for £300,000 of share capital; it went to allotment in 1903 with about £75,000. And when the magnitude of the task that lay before the company was considered, the necessity laid upon it of providing roads, sewers, water, light, power, and of developing and administering so large an enterprise, it was little wonder that a critic, Mr. Scoble, speaking to Members of that Institution six years ago declared that even if the scheme were inherently sound and practicable—which he did not believe it to be—it still must fail for lack of capital and of ability to attract industries.

But what had been done since he last had the honour of addressing the Members of the Surveyors' Institution on 25th January, 1904? Their share capital has been steadily increased from £75,000 to £175,000, and their population had grown from 700 to 6,250, and in a part of the country (North Hertfordshire), hitherto a purely agricultural district, there had been established a great variety of industries within easy distance of which were built the garden-surrounded cottages of the workers who even now enjoyed many of the advantages of a considerable town, including, of course, the inevitable skating rink and cinematograph hall, as well as an open-air swimming bath, gymnasium, tennis courts, bowling green, cricket, football and hockey fields, clubs, churches, an exceptionally fine elementary school, with frequent concerts, lectures, dances, and dramatic performances.

He would like to mention some of the industries they had attracted. There were two engineering works, those of Messrs. Heatley, Gresham, Limited, which was the first industry to be established at Letchworth, and the Lacre Motor Car Works—manufacturing commercial motors, which was among their most recently established enterprises. There were two large and extremely well-equipped bookbinding works—those of Messrs. J. M. Dent & Sons, Limited, so well known in connection with "Everyman's Library," whose works were now being much extended, and of Messrs. W. H. Smith & Son. There were three printing works—the Garden City Press (a co-operative society), the Arden Press (Messrs. W. H. Smith & Son), and Messrs. Wheeler and Odell's Works. There were Swiss Embroidery Works, which were using some of the best Swiss machinery (Messrs. M. Herz & Co.), and Mr. Hunter's St. Edmundsbury Weaving Works, in

which some of the finest silk fabrics were being made. There were works for the manufacture of photographic paper; works for the making of lenses, the Kyrptox; works for the manufacture of cameras, films and bioscopes (The Kinora, Ltd.); an electric sawmills; a steam laundry, filled up with the most up-to-date appliances and machinery and doing work for far distant places. Mr. A. W. Hayter carried on the business of an organ builder, Messrs. Carter & Matthews of manufacturing confectioners, while an American company, who had for some years carried on in the United States a rapidly increasing business in the manufacture (under a patent) of Spirella corsets, had formed an English company which was now proceeding to establish their works at Letchworth. Other highly important industries were negotiating for sites. The total number of employees in the various factories on the estate, apart from the gasworks, waterworks, electric power works, &c., of the company, was now fully 1,000.

The housing of the working people on the estate had certainly been a very difficult problem, but on the whole it had been successfully grappled with. The chief agencies which had aided in the solution of this problem had been the Garden City Tenants (a co-operative society), the Letchworth Cottages and Buildings Company, Limited (a subsidiary company), the two Cottage Exhibitions which had been held on the estate, and the enterprise of friends of the movement. It was, he thought, not too much to say that the best and most roomy cottages which of recent years had been built for £150 were to be found on their estate. He should be proud to show them and their city to the Members of The Institution.

The following was a summary of development to December, 1909:—

Population	6,250
Number of houses built...	1,096
Number of factories and workshops ...	35
Number of shops built	61
Number of new churches, chapels, and places of worship	4
Number of public halls	3
Number of hotels	6
New roads made	over 9 miles
Water mains laid	17½ „
Gas mains laid	12½ „
Sewers laid	12 „
Open spaces (parks, commons, &c.) in the town area, about	200 acres
Capital value of buildings erected	£365,300

In addition to the above there were schools, both elementary and secondary, political and social clubs, telephonic, telegraphic and postal facilities, swimming bath, reading rooms, library, cinematographic hall, golf course, cricket, football, and tennis grounds, indoor rifle range and gymnastic club, waterworks, gasworks, and electric power generating station.

There was a question which such a practical body were sure to ask. Had the garden city enterprise paid a dividend yet? The answer was, No; but on the other hand it had paid interest on half the capital it had worked with; and it would be easy to demonstrate that if the company had been started on its career with the capital it asked for it would ere now have been paying a dividend. But in spite of all the difficulties naturally incidental to so new a venture, the company would, he believed, begin to pay a dividend soon, and from that

time forward that dividend would be certain to grow and would be secured in a manner in which the dividends of few companies were secured. By that time they would have demonstrated that, with sufficient capital for rapid development, the establishment of new towns on wisely chosen new areas was at least, from the point of view of the State, a most profitable enterprise.

At Letchworth they had already secured a healthy environment for 6,300 people, many of whom had never before enjoyed that supreme advantage; and in a few years they would have secured an equally good environment for 30,000 persons, and would have shown beyond all doubt the way to the solution of the grave twin evils of their time—the overcrowded city and the depopulated country.

He was really incorrect when he said that as yet they had paid no dividend. They had, but that dividend had, in the first place, gone to the State rather than to the shareholders. It must never be forgotten that a healthy population was the chief asset of a state, that national health yielded true wealth and prosperity far more certainly than mines of gold and silver. Part of that State-received dividend was their infantile mortality rate of 56 per 1,000, as against 145 per 1,000 of 26 large towns, with all that such a low death rate implied of health, happiness, and potential service to the State. Surely, then, it was better to lose for a while—and it would only be for a while—a dividend on some small part of their capital than to let slip the opportunity of investing money, talent, or energy in an enterprise fraught with great blessings to their country.

The surveyor's profession was a noble one. Might their survey, while extending over their land, be a survey also of life and its problems, and be wide, deep,

and far-reaching; and then, with ever-increasing clearness, they would see rising before them opportunities for joining their skill and knowledge with the skill and knowledge of other creative professions—architectural, engineering, educational, agricultural, financial, commercial—in a supreme series of efforts to lift the people to a higher plane of life than had hitherto been thought possible—and their reward would follow, as the harvest followed seed time.

Mr. Howard Martin (Past President) said he was sure that every one who practised as a surveyor must join in the gratitude that had been already expressed in the vote of thanks to Mr. Willmot for his very able analysis of the provisions of the Housing and Town Planning Act. He supposed there was hardly any surveyor in the country but looked forward to having something to do with the carrying out of its provisions, and he was sure there was no surveyor who had looked at the Act who had not felt the immense need of such a clear statement as Mr. Willmot had provided of what those provisions were. A statement of that kind was always valuable, but especially so when, as in that case, the Act proceeded largely to legislate by reference. He believed it was an axiom of the English law that every Englishman was assumed to know the law, but if it were so assumed the law ought to be stated clearly, and not left to be arrived at by collating several different Acts, and arriving in that way at a result which no one but a trained lawyer was really able to appreciate.

He supposed that almost every one would agree that the Act was a really well-meant and, on the whole, successful endeavour to deal with the very great and growing difficulties caused by an enormous and rapidly

increasing population. The Act seemed to him to be decidedly in favour of those landlords and landowners who had been trying to administer their property for the benefit of their tenants as well as themselves, and with a public spirited eye to the benefit of the neighbourhood in which their property was situated; by protecting them against the competition of unscrupulous owners who thought only of making the largest possible income at the present moment without any regard to the future or the benefit of anyone except themselves. If the Act were fairly administered in a practical spirit he did not think there could be any doubt that it would be productive of much good, and though it had defects (every Act started with a considerable number of defects, and some retained them for all time), those defects, as time and experience made them clear, would no doubt be gradually removed by subsequent amendments.

As regards the clauses dealing with purchase by compulsory powers and the payment of compensation for injurious affection, which were naturally particularly interesting to surveyors, it had been objected that in most cases the arbitrators to settle those questions were to be appointed by the Local Government Board. With one qualification, he himself did not think that that was a very serious objection.

He thought they would all agree that on the whole Government Departments had in the past exercised such powers fairly where they had been let alone; but there was a growing uneasiness lest Government Departments should not be left alone in such matters, and that the exigencies of elections might influence persons in power to put pressure on Government Departments to make such appointments without a single eye to the particular merits of the case or of the person to be

appointed. He was not speaking of any particular party nor of any particular Department, but of a general feeling of uneasiness on the subject which he thought he had detected. If matters moved far and fast in that direction it would certainly be a great evil that any Government Department should be left with the sole power of appointing arbitrators to judge in what was practically its own cause; but he hoped that the Local Government Board would be strong enough to stand against such influences if they existed.

He observed that those sections did not make any allowance for compensation in compulsory purchases, but that did not strike him as a very serious objection, because the allowance for forced sale was to cover the vendor's expenses of reinvestment, and he saw nothing in the Act to prevent anyone in a sale under compulsory powers claiming for the expenses of reinvestment in any case where he could show as a trustee, or under other circumstances, that the expenses of reinvestment were really a serious consideration in regard to the compulsory sale. If that view were right, and he thought it was, although an allowance of 10 per cent. for compulsory sale would not be made, a claim could be made for compensation as a particular head of damage, and he thought where the loss was really suffered the claim could be enforced.

As regards the housing sections, one of the most noticeable defects in the whole Act was that the maximum limit of rental value of the houses in connection with which the landlord was presumed to give a guarantee to his tenants that they were in proper habitable condition when let, was £40 in London, £26 in boroughs with 50,000 population and over, and £16 a year in other places. That appeared to him to be a very considerable

oversight, because the limit included houses let on lease at £40 a year, which meant a gross value of between £55 and £60, and houses let on weekly tenancy at £40 a year which meant a net value of something like £24; two sets of houses in entirely different classes, the former of which was certainly not of a kind to require the protection of the Act at all. Houses let on terms of three years and upwards on an agreement containing a covenant that the tenant was to put the house in repair at the commencement of the tenancy were excepted from this clause, but that did not cover the ordinary repairing lease where the landlord put the house in repair at the commencement of the tenancy and the tenant had to keep it in repair afterwards. This excluded from the protection of the Act the tenants of houses let in tenements and producing a gross rent of more than £40 a year (and there were many such in London producing a rent of more than £50 a year), and it included houses let on lease at £40 a year, and caused the curious anomaly that in those houses the landlord would be liable for the future upkeep of the house under the Act and the tenant would be liable for the future upkeep of the house under the lease. Which was really to be held liable? He supposed they would not know until the matter had been fought out in a court of law.

The Act contained a very valuable clause giving the Local Government Board power to revoke local by-laws impeding the erection of working-class houses. That matter had been referred to in that room again and again, and he was sure they were all agreed that that power if wisely exercised would be of enormous assistance in the housing of the rural population.

Another provision which seemed to him to be extremely wise was that in future the Housing of the

Working Classes Act was to apply to all districts and not only to districts which had adopted it. To his mind the adoptive principle of legislation was just as bad as legislation by reference. If a measure were wise and right, why should it be left to some districts not to apply it? If it were not wise and right, why should any district have to apply it at all? He for one was extremely glad that the whole country was to be tarred with one brush and the Act was to be made applicable to every district.

Another excellent point in the Act was that county medical officers were to be put in a kind of judicial position. Hitherto their work had been extremely difficult in some counties, because local interest had in many cases conflicted with sanitary requirements, but now the local medical officer of health could not be appointed for a limited time and could not be removed without the consent of the Local Government Board; and he would be put in a kind of judicial position to decide all cases according to their merits. He thought that was an improvement.

The operation of the town planning clauses would practically secure on all estates, if the Act were wisely worked, the benefits which had been secured by the landowners' regulations on large leasehold estates. He did not know a better example of town planning (perhaps a little old fashioned compared with Letchworth, but still sufficiently satisfactory) than Eastbourne. There the town planning had been practically done by the surveyors of two large landowners, and as he ventured to think very successfully. As an instance of the extreme injury that could be done to a beautiful place by the vagaries of small owners, he would mention Newquay, on the coast of Cornwall. This town, situated on one of the most

beautiful bays on the coast, was so unwisely built that the whole of the cliff coast line was covered with small, inferior houses, and you could walk through the whole town practically without getting a view of the sea; and there was no coast road in the whole place. These were two admirable examples, on the one hand of the effect of the leasehold system and the control which it gave to the owners of large estates to carry out comprehensive schemes; and on the other of the effect of the small owner system, where every man was left to himself to do what was right in his own eyes.

Having regard to the real interest of landowners themselves in the best possible laying out of their estates not near the suburbs of towns, he thought it was highly important that the suggestion which had been made by previous speakers, that landowners should take the initiative in town planning schemes, should be adopted.

It had been very well said that "whate'er was best "administered was best," and if the Act were administered in a reasonable and practical spirit he could not have any doubt that it would be productive of great good; but if not he thought the effect would be very much the other way. It had been laid down that the object of the town planning sections was to "secure proper sanitary conditions and convenience "in the laying out and use of land for housing a "growing population without an impossible burden "of cost." That appeared to be a very sound practical definition of the benefits they might expect from the Act.

The Act had been discussed at considerable length not only there but at various conferences held elsewhere, and that had not been the point of view from which many speakers had approached it. There

had been rather a tendency to approach it as if it had been merely a question of solving an artistic and architectural problem, and a great deal had been said that only applied to the laying out of new towns. Now and again new towns might be laid out, and advantage of the Act might be taken for the purpose, but it was obvious that the immediate application of the Act would be much more frequently in connection with the suburbs of large and growing towns already existing. Those were the places in which the application of the Act was likely to be of immediate good and preventive of an enormous amount of future harm.

It was no use, in dealing with a subject of that kind, to propound ideas that were "too wise and good "for human nature's daily food"; for instance, it had been said and written that legislation affecting temperance, the conditions of labour, and the education of the masses, being only superficial and supplementary, was less important than town planning. Another gentleman said the evils of drunkenness and licentiousness, betting and gambling, and the consequent underfeeding would be removed by the beauty of architectural effects and trees and flowers. He thought utterances like that showed an utter misconception of human nature and of the real conditions of the problem of housing our population. He had no doubt that almost all of those present did enjoy architectural beauty; probably the majority of them felt happier and better if they were able to live in a house which satisfied their sense of beauty, both inside and out. But the average man did not, and there was a very large number of average men in our large population. The average man liked a house to be bright, clean, and convenient; his senses were probably pleased with red strips

of brickwork in the front wall and blue and yellow glass in the fanlight, because he thought that rather relieved the otherwise monotonous appearance; but if his tastes lay that way he would get drunk and beat his wife with equal enjoyment if he lived amid the architectural surroundings of a Venetian palace just as much as if he lived in a weekly cottage at Kennington. He was under the impression that he had heard of the evils of licentiousness, drunkenness and gambling amongst classes who lived amid the most beautiful architectural surroundings the country could provide, and to whom trees and flowers were among the commonplaces of life.

The fact was that providing sites for houses, especially for the working classes, was a business; and if they wanted it successfully carried out (and he was not speaking of success from the point of view of the builder and the surveyor but of the population), and without a ruinous addition to the burden of the ratepayers, it must be done on business lines. For instance, it had been suggested that all buildings to be used as advertisements, all buildings vicious in colour and vulgar in expression should be prohibited. They would all like to see that, but who was to decide what was "vicious in colour and vulgar in expression"? Architects did not always agree, any more than doctors; some things which architects thought beautiful, other people thought ugly, and it would be hard for the tastes of the people who were to live in the houses, and the arrangements of the builder who was to put them up, to be despotically controlled by the tastes of other people without any regard to utility, convenience, and other considerations connected with the question.

It was suggested by one gentleman that all viaducts and embankments by which railways approached towns

should be demolished, and they should be formed in cuttings and tubes under the main streets. That struck him as a "large order"; he did not know where the money for such a thing was to come from. If people approached the administration of the Act in that sort of spirit it could be nothing but the most absolute failure.

Another point that ought to be carefully considered in the administration of the Act was that landowners could not claim any compensation for the damage done to their property by restrictions put upon it, as, for instance, being compelled to allow on their land a class or number of buildings that would not produce the greatest profit to the landowner. The Act was intended for the public benefit, and in a case of that kind he supposed people must put up with some private hardship; but it ought not to be unnecessarily aggravated. The Act should be administered in a real spirit of justice, and with a real desire for the general benefit of all, and not in the spirit of one gentleman who gravely advocated that land should be "made cheap" by carefully limiting the number of houses that should be put upon it in the town plans. That appeared to him nothing but suggesting robbery under cover of the powers of an Act of Parliament.

Another difficulty that occurred to him in the administration of the Act was that the schemes were to include all land likely to be used for building, but it said nothing at all as to the extent to which the authors of the schemes were to look into the future in making the plans. It had been suggested that thirty years was a reasonable limit; but if they, with their experience, looked round and considered the changes that took place in thirty years, sometimes in the trade of a town, some-

times in the character of its population, he thought they would say that any local authority, however wisely assisted by architects, engineers, and others, would be quite unable to lay down for thirty years hence precisely the character of houses that ought to be put up in any particular part of the uncovered land that surrounded it. He should hesitate very much to suggest any limit of the future time within which these schemes should apply, but he thought that any attempt to legislate for thirty years hence might cause the most serious inconvenience.

It was to be observed that while local authorities were entitled to claim betterment, that is to say to claim half the enhanced value caused by any scheme that might be adopted, no provision was made in the Act for the machinery of assessing or collecting the betterment. They would all recollect that in the Holborn to Strand Improvement Act, 1899, it was provided that the County Council should obtain "betterment" and the betterment was to be ascertained by making an initial valuation before the scheme was carried out, and subsequent valuations after the scheme had been carried out when the increase of value could be reasonably ascertained; and when that was ascertained the share of the County Council was to be collected in the shape of a rate at 3 per cent. on half the enhanced capital value. That seemed to him, if betterment were to be claimed at all, to be a very fair way of dealing with the question; but if, as in this Act, the local authority were entitled to claim betterment and were obliged to claim for it within a very limited time after the scheme was settled, before it could really be ascertained whether there was any betterment at all, and must claim half the capital value from owners, some of whom were certain to be poor with

no cash to spare, and who would have received none of the benefit in respect of which they would have to pay, he thought it would cause a good deal of hardship and uncertainty. He hoped that that section, at any rate, would very shortly be amended in some way or another on the lines of the section for which the County Council had obtained the sanction of Parliament in their Act.

A good deal had been said as to the modification of the regulations as to the construction and width of roads. It was very desirable that town planning schemes and building schemes should not be burdened by unnecessary expense in that way. He knew one town where most of the roads were made on absolutely solid chalk, but, solid chalk or no solid chalk, they had to put 18 inches of flints on top of the road when formed. That seemed to him to be throwing money away, and it was desirable to avoid that kind of thing. He knew another place where all the roads were made 50 feet in width, and that seemed to him quite as great a mistake in the same direction. On the other hand, he thought the suggestions that had been made went a great deal too far. Roads of a suitable width were really essential, not only for appearance but for the convenience and health of any place, No gardens however large could compensate for meanness and narrowness of roads. It must also be remembered that a considerable part of these suburbs would be occupied by the dwellings of poor people, and poor people who lived in the suburbs of large towns really had not the means of providing the labour and manure for the cultivation of their gardens. Very frequently they had no taste for gardening and had not the inclination or the time to devote their own labour to keeping them in order, and nothing more disfigured a suburb than unkept,

untidy and neglected gardens. He thought most people of any experience in managing property of the kind would agree that while gardens were desirable, large gardens in many urban districts were not by any means a benefit to the tenant, and even if they were they would not compensate for the absence of proper width in the roads.

One speaker gravely suggested that groups of cottages should be built approached only by footpaths. That was a retrograde suggestion going back to the absolutely pre-sanitary era, before there were local boards of health or by-laws of any description. What could be more objectionable than cottages up to which you could not get any vehicle, where coal had to be carried in and rubbish carried away by hand; where after dark, the population had to approach their homes by narrow footpaths which became impossible to police, impossible to keep clean, impossible to light, and at night would be the scene of every kind of abomination. That was the very thing that every surveyor who had had to do with neighbourhoods of that kind had been seeking for years to get done away with.

The same remark applied to culs de sac. It had been suggested as a means of cheapening roads that culs de sac should be allowed in these growing suburbs. He thought the idea of town planning was to get rid of that kind of thing, to get roads made which led somewhere, instead of compelling everybody who went down them to come back again, and roads which from traffic and liability to traffic through them, should be pure, in a moral and police sense, instead of being left after dark as a happy hunting ground for bad characters.

Then it had been suggested that good villas 150 feet from the road would not need carriage drives. He thought

the man who said that could not be married. Fancy what a wife would say to her husband if he took her to such a house. Why, she and her lady friends would have to walk that 50 yards at any time of night in any weather, under all circumstances, and for the same distance everything which came into the house and everything which went away from it would have to be carried. Anyone who has had experience of the sale, letting, or management of property of that kind would say at once the idea was quite preposterous.

The same speaker had suggested that large groups of good houses need only be approached by carriage drives 600 feet long, from 12 to 16 feet wide. Two vehicles could not safely pass in 12 feet; they could just pass safely in 16 feet, but there would be no room for a footpath. Children and nursemaids from the houses would have to go down that 12-feet carriage drive, in daily danger from tradesmen's carts coming backwards and forwards. How was the drive to be kept clean with all the traffic concentrated in so narrow a width? It would be turned in the winter into a wet slough.

Moreover, if the gardens were to be an ornament to the neighbourhood, which the promoters of the Bill hoped to see, people would grow trees in them. How was the 16-feet road to be lighted at night with trees on both sides, practically in a few years meeting over the top? How were the police to protect anyone coming down such a road after dark if he were known to have money about him, as it would necessarily be impossible to light it? It was that kind of impracticable idea which, if carried out, would set people against the Act.

People expected conveniences, people expected sanitary advantages, they expected harmony in the laying

out of estates, so that no one should cause public inconvenience for the sake of getting a benefit for himself, but they did not expect to have to sacrifice the convenience of their own houses and the comforts they had always enjoyed in order to save money to be bestowed on building what architects might regard as prettier houses. It was all very well to lay out an estate at the moment as a sort of idyllic place where people could wear no hats and go without shoes and stockings; but suburbs laid out in that way twenty years hence might be the centre of large growing populations.

It was necessary, if the Act were to succeed, that strictly practical considerations should be taken into account, he did not say to the exclusion of the desire for beauty, but should be taken into account and given their proper weight in settling all such schemes. If the Act were worked reasonably and fairly he believed it would be successful and do much good. But if it were worked on the extreme lines which the quotations he had made seemed to indicate, it would produce a popular reaction against the whole thing which would wreck the Act and render it absolutely valueless.

Mr. Richard Fowler (Fellow) said that when the President had kindly asked him to second the vote of thanks to Mr. Willmot for his Paper, he had not cared on the spur of the moment to take up their time by making any unpremeditated remarks upon the Paper.

At their last meeting they enjoyed the many instructive and beautiful illustrations and the remarks by various speakers who pointed out to them in so graphic a manner some of the beauties of town planning and architecture in such cities as Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Melbourne, Washington, Chicago, &c., also certain mis-

takes that had been made; and how Trafalgar Square could be further beautified at a cost of, say, a hundred thousand pounds or more.

Although it was highly improbable that any of them would be called upon to carry out similar works to these, such information presented to their minds ideals which should influence for good their more humble efforts in the development of the building land around their towns, or the beautifying of the towns themselves.

It might not be uninteresting if he carried their thoughts to the other extreme, viz., to those areas where town planning difficulties originated, and suggested certain remedies, on the assumption that prevention was better than cure.

Boundaries of agricultural estates often consisted of narrow lanes—many originating from cart tracks connecting one field with another, but now fenced and glorified by the appellation of highways—meandering watercourses, and ancient crooked fences, awkward enough for agricultural purposes, but all of which had hitherto been important factors in laying out building land. In the development of large estates such boundaries were not of so much importance, but where the land was owned in small plots indiscriminately mixed together the new Act would be most valuable; hitherto they had been muddling in the attempt to fit straight roads and rectangular building plots into such ill-shaped pieces of land and so evolve a town.

In dealing with such land considerable discretion would be required in enforcing Section 58, Subsection 3, or great hardship might be caused where a piece of land had been bought or held until ripe for building, but an approach or easement, necessary to develop such land, had not been acquired before a scheme had been put in force;

possibly this had been overlooked, otherwise in such cases the owner who had nursed the baby was sure to object stoutly to the halving of profit proposed in this section, but he believed by this rough-and-ready proposal (a method adopted by the wisdom of Solomon) it was intended that local authorities and arbitrators should (as Solomon intended) cause the baby to be restored to the rightful owner, he of course paying proper charges for the development.

He found himself in accord with almost every view Mr. Willmot had expressed with regard to the Act, and with regard to the costly specification of roads adopted in some districts; it seemed absurd that there should only be one specification for general application to main roads, side roads, town roads, and suburban roads alike.

The Act did not appear to provide for proper treatment of the areas surrounding towns immediately beyond those areas that were ripe for building, and where so many town planning difficulties originated, yet the treatment of such areas must be of the greatest importance, especially in these days of easy locomotion by bicycles and cheap railway fares. Such areas were more than ever being purchased and built upon in small isolated plots either for single houses, or by speculators who cared nothing for the amenities of the road or the future development of the district, so long as they sold or let their half-dozen houses, often built up to the edge of the footpath, and disfiguring long lengths of otherwise pretty country roads and thwarting future town planning schemes. But it would be too cumbersome, costly, and premature to put a scheme in force in such areas for such small plots, and it therefore seemed that the time had arrived when powers should be given to local authorities to draw up additional by-laws to

protect their roads and areas from injury and disfigurement by such building operations, and also to facilitate the widening of roads, &c., whilst the work could be carried out comparatively cheaply, and so to pave the way for a town planning scheme if necessary when the proper time arrived.

The Act seemed to contemplate that schemes would be prepared for large areas, as the procedure, necessary formalities, approvals, and arrangements for carrying out the work were elaborate and were to be equivalent to an Act of Parliament; alterations and revocations in schemes might give rise to most difficult problems for adjustment, both to those owners who had executed work under a scheme, and even to those owners who had not begun development. Schemes would take time to carry through—some very many years—and time might cause alterations in the character of the district, and also in the views of the authorities originating the scheme.

Now it would be practically impossible for an authority at a certain date to formulate a scheme for the development of the whole of their area, indeed as a rule it would be difficult for them to do so even for a few hundred acres, without some future alterations being necessary; so he imagined that authorities where development was going on would adopt a sort of unauthorised scheme, showing generally their intentions as to main roads, open spaces, and other main features, the greater portion of which they might be able to carry through without the expense, delay and trouble of an official scheme, which could at any time be put in force as far as and when necessary. The mere existence of this Act gave local authorities a power which he thought would often practically have the same effect as putting

an official scheme in force, but such procedure would be still more effective and easily carried out if they were also given certain additional by-laws.

When the Act was under discussion by the Parliamentary Bills Committee of The Institution he brought forward this question of additional by-laws, and the Council had added the last two paragraphs to their Memorandum on the Bill recommending the remodelling of by-laws for these districts on the outskirts of building areas. It should not be impossible to draw up such by-laws with fairness to ratepayers and landowners, the main difficulty being the danger of favouritism especially in small districts. A right of appeal however to the Local Government Board should overcome this judging by the President's desire—which would doubtless be shared by future Presidents—to settle such matters in a quick, cheap, fair, and businesslike manner by the appointment of arbitrators understanding the work, who with a few facts put before them could generally see at a glance the right thing to do without listening to a mass of costly evidence.

He would suggest that authorities should have power in their by-laws :—

1. To fix all building lines. How different roads would look if all houses were set well back, with a garden patch in front, and as the town encroached, how much easier to widen the roads. In many districts the first man who bought a small plot, if away from other houses, fixed his own building line, and to save the cost of front fencing built flush with the back of the footpath, thus forming a precedent against setting back on the adjoining land and gradually spoiling the road. The pleasure of a country walk for people from the adjoining towns was spoilt, for as they passed they heard the

noises, smelt the smells, and often saw the washings of the floors and the paper and rubbish thrown into the roads.

He would like to see some attempt at control over hideous erections, because, although four plain walls with a projecting roof set back from the road did not necessarily form an eyesore, single houses were often built which looked like a slice of pork pie standing on its end. He once had great difficulty in convincing a builder of this, but by suggesting that he should cut the brim off his hat and walk down the street, he saw the point, and altered his building accordingly, and he had more than once received his thanks for the suggestion.

Authorities were sometimes lax themselves. Recently he had had a case where four houses were being added in the same line as six others, but as there was a bend in the road the houses would have cut in towards the road if this line had been continued. As he was interested in property on the other side of the road he pointed it out to the builder, who replied the authorities had raised no objection or he would have been quite willing to have set back. He (Mr. Fowler) gave him the cost of altering his foundations, and the matter was at once set right, and the builder had since expressed his satisfaction at the change.

2. To approve the site of new roads. Roads at present were often not as symmetrical as a dog's hind leg—they were made solely to squeeze as many houses as possible into ill-shaped plots—cul de sac roads, forming "rookeries," where undesirables who wished to escape notice took up their abode, were objectionable. Many owners would be willing not to develop on such lines if they did not see their neighbour profit by so doing.

3. To fix a minimum area and frontage for a single house. There would of course have to be exceptions in

close proximity to existing towns and villages. In former days houses were necessarily crowded together for protection and to save locomotion. Back-to-back houses could be let cheaper and were necessary in towns, and he saw little objection from a sanitary point of view, particularly if the terraces ran from north to south and there were sufficient air space; it was where they surrounded small rectangular courts where the sun never fully shone, the wind never cleared, and they could not swing the proverbial cat, that they were insanitary. If he had to model a new town he would make the blocks between the streets oblong, the longest length running north to south so that those dwelling-houses would, when the sun shone, be bathed back and front with sunshine once a day.

4. To direct the making up of junction roads between adjoining estates.

5. To prevent building upon low-lying land until so filled up at the owner's cost that a reasonable fall by gravity could be obtained. Speculators bought such land cheaply, started building operations and expected the ratepayers to pump the sewage for them.

6. To widen old highways where necessary in front of proposed buildings in order to save more costly outlay in the future.

7. To straighten and widen roads, straighten foot-paths and streams, and to enclose useless wayside strips, or to exchange the same, the fencing out with the proper approval of the authority to be a sufficient title; he knew there were certain powers for this but they were cumber-some; a wayside strip, which was only used by gipsies and blackberry pickers, has the most sacred title of any land in the parish. In any give-and-take arrangement for the improvement of an old highway a small strip or

corner had sometimes to be enclosed. Recently in selling a piece of land where this had been done he had much more correspondence with a first-class firm of lawyers over a little corner of land so enclosed than the freehold was worth, as it was not shown on the original title plan.

Mr. Alfred King (Fellow) said he wished to offer a few friendly criticisms upon the admirable Paper which had been read by Mr. Davidge. The ideal set was an exceedingly elevated one, but speaking as a practical surveyor he ventured to say it was unattainable, owing to the vast outlay which would be required to carry out such large and comprehensive improvements as were suggested in the Paper. In connection with all these improvements one must acknowledge the fact that they resolved themselves into a question of outlay. During the last thirty or forty years enormous improvements in London had taken place which had cost colossal sums. The last—the Aldwych—had necessitated an outlay of something like $5\frac{3}{4}$ millions, land of the value of something like £3,000,000 remaining vacant on that improvement at the present time. He thought it was very well to have these grand ideas, but one must not think for a moment that they could be consummated unless in the first instance there was a call for them, and in the second that the money was forthcoming and would bring in a fair return.

As regards London he did not propose to give details of the improvements which had taken place in that vast city during the last thirty or forty years; they were common knowledge to the majority of those present, and no doubt as time went on and necessities arose

they would be added to for the benefit of the community.

On page 47 of his Paper Mr. Davidge stated that the ground landlords did not help in the way in which he would like. He was sorry to hear such a statement as that, and with close upon forty years' experience in the profession he must deny its correctness.

Going back thirty years, about that time the Chelsea Estate fell into the hands of the Earl of Cadogan. It consisted of dwellings two storeys high in poor streets. When his lordship laid out the new plan in connection with the development of that estate what did we find? In place of narrow streets broad thoroughfares were constructed; in place of those two-storey buildings we found palatial residences. The improvement was of no cost to the community, because the land was absolutely given up by his lordship for the benefit of the community. That was a distinct instance where the ground landlord had practically out of his own pocket contributed to the welfare of the population of this town.

Another case of that kind took place some fifteen or twenty years ago in the development of the Duke of Westminster's estate. Mount Street was now a very different street to what it was, the thoroughfares leading from it, Carlos Place for instance, constituted one of the most magnificent improvements which have taken place in the West End of London.

A still more recent instance was the improvement on the Bedford estate by Gordon Square. Where the thoroughfares were congested an arrangement was entered into with the St. Pancras Borough Council whereby the Duke of Bedford for a fair consideration gave up valuable land which he might have kept and obtained a much larger price for later, and thus bore his share in what would be a fine improvement.

Mr. Davidge had given beautiful illustrations of the towns in Germany, and had drawn a vivid picture of the advantages of Germany over England in town planning. He did not however show the other side of the picture, which he, the speaker, would now show, and ask them to draw their own conclusions.

A paper was read by a Mr. T. G. Horsfall, before the National Town Planning Congress, held recently at Westminster, which contained some very interesting figures. He stated that the average population of a house in Berlin was 57 ; in Breslau, Stettin, and other places, about 30 ; while in London it fell to 7·6, and in Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, Leeds, and Liverpool it was from 5 to 6. In Berlin there were no less than 700,000 people who lived in one-room tenements, whereas in London, with more than twice the population, there were only 300,000 who lived in one-room tenements. Then again, other interesting information was given, noticeably that the average number of people in Berlin per acre was 180, whilst in London the figure was 62. He left those figures for their consideration as to which town came out the best. In point of health London was far and away better than Berlin ; in 1906 its death rate was 15·9 per thousand ; in 1907 it fell to 15·3, and in 1908, 14·5.

Town planning was doubtless a most important subject, and one which required to be very carefully approached. However much one might like to see the artistic buildings which had been shadowed forth by various speakers, one must not disregard the more important element, namely, their being adapted for the purpose for which they were made. In connection with that fact he certainly did not agree for one instant that any Government Board should practically act as arbitrator in connection with any appeals which might be

referred to them. He could quite conceive that in the event of the President of such an august assembly as the Local Government Board adopting the rôle of Caesar it might be exceedingly disadvantageous to the community at large.

Mr. HARRY S. STEWART (Professional Associate) said he thought he was voicing the views of others besides himself in expressing regret that the discussion should for a moment have been diverted from the Town Planning Act. He thought that, however interesting town planning in the past and improvements in London might be, it was very important they should arrive at some conclusion with regard to the administration of this new Act. It would be supporting the reputation of this Institution if the administrative details of the Act were discussed and some conclusions arrived at.

However much they might professionally regret that Mr. Burns had appointed as chief administrator one who was not a member of The Institution or of the Institute of British Architects, yet he was sure they were all anxious to assist him in administering this Act. There were one or two practical suggestions he wished to make as to what might be done. He had not noticed that any memorandum had been issued by The Institution since the passing of the Act, and this he thought would be a most useful thing to many of them. He would also like to suggest that The Surveyors' Institution should prepare a list of members who were engaged in town planning schemes, or in schemes for garden suburbs, men who had experience in that way, so that with that list in their hands they would be ready for applications (*a*) from local authorities who were wishing to prepare town planning schemes; (*b*) from landowners who in default

of local authorities were wishing to prepare schemes, or (*c*) from landowners who were objecting to a scheme which had been put forward. If a committee of such members were formed by The Institution they might prepare a memorandum suggesting the best procedure for putting forward a scheme and for dealing with it throughout; and a memorandum might also be prepared and sent to local authorities showing what information ought to be collected before a town planning scheme was drawn up and also suggesting what plans would be advisable.

The committee might also ask members for reports on any scheme on which they were engaged, as there were of course many questions which would arise in dealing with schemes in connection with which information would be most valuable, for instance the question whether, when a town plan is prepared in the course of a scheme, it should be kept back from the public for a certain time or whether it should at once be published.

The committee might also draft a proposed set of by-laws regarding streets, dealing in the first place with the width of streets required at present, in the second place with the width of streets at a future date without compensation, and in the third place with their width at a future date with compensation defined. By the last point he meant the streets might be allowed to be of narrow width to begin with provided land could be taken by the local authority without compensation when required, or provided the land could be taken with a definite compensation fixed. Again, the construction of streets was a matter which might perhaps be dealt with in the draft by-laws, so that the details of construction required for actually taking over would be known, and not only what was required for making up.

Mr. W. R. DAVIDGE (Fellow), in reply to the comments which had been made, said he felt very grateful to all those who by contributing to the discussion had helped to throw a light upon the subject. So many points had been touched upon that he felt somewhat at a loss in the brief space of time at his disposal to do anything like justice to the very valuable suggestions and criticisms which had been put forward. He felt particularly fortunate that evening in being associated with Mr. Willmot in reading his Paper, because in him they had a Member who had given a great deal of time to the consideration of the new Act, and who had helped them a great deal in elucidating what was undoubtedly a most comprehensive and in some respects a most complicated measure.

With regard to the discussion generally, he thought there were many points that he need not elaborate, but he would have liked to have seen a little more definite suggestion as to the way in which the Act was to be carried out by surveyors, and perhaps even more the way in which it would affect the growth of our existing suburbs, particularly the suburbs of the great metropolis with which they were connected, London, and its many surrounding towns. Mr. Leslie Vigers' tribute to Sir Christopher Wren's far-seeing mind was well deserved,but even Wren could not have foreseen the immense increase in London to its present population of practically ten times what it was in those days. Records are still extant which show that even in Sir Christopher Wren's time the ratepayers cried out it was "too late"; they must not raise the same cry at the present day. They knew that London had grown in population in that comparatively short space of time almost tenfold, and a considerable part of that growth was due to the last century.

What the next century would bring forth they could not foresee, but at any rate they must in their town planning schemes be prepared for the development that was bound to come. He felt sure that their Institution would help the authorities to the fullest possible extent. Although they might criticise the powers which had been given, and they would no doubt criticise the details of the Act, he felt sure the Local Government Board and its officials would have the fullest possible support from the Members of their Institution.

With reference to the question of garden suburbs which had been so much touched upon, he thought it should be clearly understood that although they formed a very important portion of town planning as executed, they did not necessarily comprise the whole of town planning. Town planning in itself was a very much wider subject than even the development of garden suburbs. Those suburbs which had been carried out were excellent examples, and he was sure they all felt indebted to those who had done so much in founding them. After all, however, they were only examples of what might be done in filling in between the main lines of a plan. The main lines should be laid down by a definite plan, but so far as this country was concerned we had practically no examples of any such system being comprehensively carried out at the present time.

Mr. Lovegrove, whose kindly references he very much appreciated, agreed fully with the views expressed in the Paper as to the magnificent way in which many Continental towns had been laid out, but he was inclined to attribute this to the fact that land was so very much cheaper than in London. As regarded the cost of land in the City of London no doubt he was right, but he (the speaker) was informed by Mr. Horsfall, whose authority on German towns was indisputable, that as a

general rule land was three times as dear in a German town as in a town of the same size here, and although the most valuable land in the City of London was worth more than any land in Berlin, the same statement held good of land in Berlin two miles from the centre of the town as compared with land at corresponding distances in London. Mr. Lovegrove's contention in favour of long straight streets for the main roads radiating from a centre had a good deal to be said for it, and no doubt one of the first steps in all towns would be to secure an adequate number of such main roads radiating from the business centres of the town, leaving the spaces between to be planned subsequently.

Mr. Lovegrove mentioned Bath, and also pointed out the charms of many Continental towns, such as Bruges and Brussels. No doubt a great deal of the charm of those cities was due to the growth of centuries. He wondered whether they could picture what Brixton would be like in two or three centuries. Possibly by a process of elimination even that inglorious suburb might develop a charm.

The London Building Act, and building Acts generally, had come in for a fair share of abuse during the discussion, but he thought there was another side to it. They were indebted to the County Council, and to other authorities who were administering these Acts, for the way in which they had, occasionally at some hardship to the owner perhaps, forced the setting back of particular buildings, which would enormously cheapen any road improvements that might come later. He felt for Mr. Lovegrove and others in their appeal for mercy on the poor ratepayers with regard to the suggested parkways between the principal parks. But by utilising existing open spaces, and following closely the line of existing streets, he thought the

expense could be brought down to an absolute minimum and when the work was done, he felt sure Mr. Lovegrove and the others would not grudge their farthing rate in respect of an improvement of which every Londoner would be proud. The cost of the improvements of Paris under Haussmann had been enormous, but the Parisians did not regret it, and they were spending more.

Mr. Raymond Unwin's remarks spoke for themselves, Mr. Unwin was known throughout the land as one of the foremost men on this subject and any remarks of his needed no commendation on his part. There was, however, one point which he emphasised and which everyone who knew anything about town planning emphasised, namely, the necessity for individuality; whether it was a town or a suburb it must have some definite reason for its planning and have some definite position of its own in the community.

A good many of the speakers had referred to the enormous expense of proposed improvements and had, he was afraid, rather wrung their hands at the possibility of an additional farthing rate to pay, but in that connection he would like to read just one sentence which appeared in the recently published report of the London Traffic Branch of the Board of Trade. It says: "How "far London falls below modern standards in the "width of its streets may be gauged by comparing it "with other great cities. Paris has 102 miles of "boulevards and avenues, 98 feet 6 inches or more in "width. London has only 8½ miles of such streets. "Paris has 42 roads radiating into the surrounding "country. London, with a population twice as large, has "20, and these with few exceptions are less wide than "the Paris roads." After those figures he did not think any of them should quibble about a few pounds.

Mr. Woodward in his written contribution had dealt

largely with London improvements which no doubt would all come to pass in due time, and he looked forward, if he lived so long, to seeing Mr. Woodward's remarks referred to as those of a prophet. In regard to the further London improvements which Mr. Woodward suggested, he thought they were in many ways excellent proposals, and he felt no doubt that many of his suggestions would come to pass.

Mr. Burge in his remarks about the Australian towns gave some particularly interesting information which he was sure would be appreciated by all, particularly with regard to the new federal capital in Australia. He thought Mr. Burge was rather in error in saying the subject had not been touched upon in any papers, because that particular matter had been somewhat exhaustively dealt with in the *Journal* of the Royal Institute of British Architects. Some little time ago (August, 1909) in that journal there had been plans published and illustrated and other suggestions made with regard to the proposed federal capital. Mr. Burge was evidently rather afraid that the 170 feet variation in level in the site of the new city might prove a difficulty, but he was of opinion that it would probably prove to be a blessing in disguise.

He thought the weighty words of their Past-President Mr. Vernon, and the breadth of treatment which he had given to the subject, based on a wide experience of travel, would be an inspiration to them all.

Mr. Lanchester's remarks involved so many points he would like to touch upon that he felt some doubt as to where to start, but generally speaking he thought Mr. Lanchester agreed with him, the only difference his suggestions involved being that they would cost a good many more millions, and if his suggestions were to be cavilled at, how much more must Mr. Lanchester's be.

Personally he felt very much in sympathy with Mr. Lanchester, although on practical grounds he did not go quite so far owing to the expense. He would very much like to see his suggestions carried out, and gave him his fullest sympathy, but he was afraid the farthing rate would have to be considerably increased were one-tenth of Mr. Lanchester's suggestions actually put into practice.

There were many things he thought might be done in their present towns to help the traffic problem. Take for instance Mr. Lanchester's suggestion of two parallel streets which might be utilised instead of forming brand new avenues.

Mr. Lanchester rather contested the suggestion he had made as to the formation of a parkway around London. No doubt he was correct as regarded the effect of the smaller park rings in comparatively small Continental towns, but the suggestion he put forward was not so much a long street in a general circular direction as a number of streets linking up the different parks. If they looked at the plan they would find it by no means in the form of a ring, and would see that many of those broad parkways would be not only parkways but important traffic-ways conveying the traffic north and south through London. One point made with regard to the practicability of the scheme he would like to contest. Mr. Lanchester made a statement that in one case where the suggested avenue crossed a railway, something like half a mile of tunnelling would be necessary, but he thought if Mr. Lanchester looked at the Ordnance Map he would find that slightly under 100 yards would cover it, and he had no doubt that with his artistic ability he would find it quite possible to make that railway viaduct the most interesting portion of the route.

Mr. Speaight's kind remarks he appreciated very

much, although he noticed that he rather fell foul of him with regard to the cost. However, he was sure he had his sympathy in the general proposals. There was perhaps one thing he suggested which he was sorry he could not agree with. Mr. Speaight thought they should start first of all with the name-plates and the lamp-posts, and afterwards make the town to them. He agreed that there was perhaps something to be said for that point of view. Those things were immediately possible without much expense, and a great deal could be done in beautifying London, or any city for that matter, by the addition of a few flower-pots, or hanging geraniums from the lamp-posts. Many Continental towns have made themselves much brighter by some small thing of that sort, but that must not stop them from the larger issues, and he felt sure the first thing they must have was an ideal to work to, and they could afterwards whittle it down to the details.

He thought Mr. Ebenezer Howard's suggestions called for no comment. The work that he and the first garden city had done spoke for itself. It was a true object lesson of how to be healthy, wealthy, and wise, and commended itself to every one. He thought a word of congratulation from this Institution was due to Mr. Ebenezer Howard and to his co-workers for the splendid work they had done and the great success they had achieved in such a very few years.

In regard to Mr. King's suggestions he thought that he had not perhaps had an opportunity, no doubt owing to other engagements, of reading the Paper quite fully. He thought that most of his points on the other side of the picture were put forward as clearly as possible in the Paper. He was quite right as to what Mr. Horsfall said about the population per house in Berlin, and if anything, he understated the position rather than overstated it. The

report gave the population per house as 52, Mr. Horsfall gave it as 77. The difference was because the German statistics were published in two forms, one was the inhabited buildings block, that was to say the square block with one or more party-walls perhaps, and the other was the inhabited house. The population in the one case was 77 per block, and in the other case about 52. That accounted for the discrepancy in the figures.

With regard to existing work the general scheme of town planning had first to do no more than regulate the general lines and directions of the main roads. With those they must first of all be satisfied, the details would come later. It might be necessary in many instances to prepare for each town not one town plan but many town plans, town plans for particular areas which would eventually shape themselves into one composite whole, but, as Mr. Raymond Unwin had well put it, they must not fall into the error of the German town planners by making a cast-iron town plan which was going to last for ever, and which went into all the details of every particular spot. The first thing was to lay down the main lines, the details would come later. Town planning of course as regards its architectural effect was largely a matter of detail, but if they laid down the main lines, that was at first all they could expect to do. He closed his remarks with just a word of appreciation to all those who had joined in the discussion and had helped so very much to bring forward the points which were not referred to directly in the Paper.

Mr. John Willmot (Fellow) said he had a great advantage that evening in the fact that Mr. Davidge's Paper had been discussed at the same time as his own, because he thought that Mr. Davidge had taken upon his shoulders the larger part of the business which had

come before them, inasmuch as his Paper dealt with the artistic and beautiful in the development of property, a far more interesting subject than his own dry matters of fact; Mr. Davidge's Paper naturally appealed to all of them more than the working of an Act of Parliament.

Referring to the Paper he had read himself, he had only a few remarks to make on the comments which had been made thereon. The first one was in regard to what fell from Mr. Unwin when he stated that he saw nothing in the Act which would prevent owners submitting plans in the ordinary course, under the ordinary by-laws for the development of their property in such a way as might interfere with the future development of the district on town planning lines.

He was bound to say he could not see anything at all to prevent that; but he did think that owners would not be anxious to develop their property in accordance with the ordinary by-laws, because probably they could do it a great deal cheaper under a Town Planning Scheme, as, if they submitted a reasonable scheme, there would be a great relaxation in by-laws, and consequently considerable less capital would have to be expended. He thought that any of them, in advising an owner as to what would be to his best interest in laying out property, would first of all prepare a plan to see what could be done to get the best results within reasonable lines with the least possible expenditure of money, because, after all was said and done, the laying out of estates always had been and would remain a matter of business.

They all had clients who as philanthropic men were anxious to do the best they could to preserve the amenities of the neighbourhood, and who really did more than could properly be expected of them from a business point of view, and who were quite satisfied to receive very little return; but on the other hand

they also acted for a large number of people who wished the matter to be treated as a matter of business, and therefore it was their duty to see it was so done. In all cases it seemed to him that they should see that a reasonable return on the outlay they had recommended would be secured. As Mr. Howard Martin said, it came back to a hard matter of business. He thought they could not get away from that.

There were one or two other little matters he would like just to refer to. One was a remark that fell from Mr. Woodward. Mr. Woodward thought there were great powers of mischief in the Act inasmuch as open spaces might be dealt with and the amenities of the public interfered with. He thought however if they referred to the Act they would see by Section 73, the dealing with these particular open spaces was safeguarded inasmuch as nothing could be done until the scheme had received the approval of Parliament, and in any case no commons or open land could be taken without a large equivalent being given by way of exchange. That provision was only stated in the very last section of the Act; it came in after the reference in the Act to the medical officer, and might easily be overlooked.

Another point raised by Mr. Howard Martin was as to the inequality which would result in respect of the maximum rentals of houses in connection with which the contracts on the part of the landlord would be presumed. He need not repeat the amounts because they were all set out, but he thought that the difficulty really arose from the number of references to Acts of Parliament. Under this new Act the maximum limit was raised to £40, £26, and £16, and was founded on Section 75 of the Act of 1890. When they looked up that section it referred them to another Act, namely, the Poor Rate Assessment Act, 1869. On

turning to that they found in Section 3 a much more sensible stipulation, because it provided that those particular amounts were to be the sums at which the houses were assessed for rateable value, and consequently the same inequality would not arise, because rateable value was a matter they all understood, whereas on the question of rent inequalities did arise, more especially where tenants paid the rates and taxes and did their own repairs and a lot of other things. If that Act and the principal Act had adopted rateable value instead of rent as the basis, inequalities would not have occurred to the same extent.

He did not think there was anything else to which he could usefully refer, and he had only now to thank them one and all for the vote of thanks they had so heartily and so kindly proposed.

The PRESIDENT said it was now his privilege and duty to add a few words by way of summing up the discussion they had heard. His first duty was the pleasant one of congratulating the writers of both the Papers, Mr. Davidge and Mr. Willmot, for the very excellent way in which they had discussed and criticised their respective subjects, the one on Town Planning Systems and the other on the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Act. He thought the two Papers being read together was useful, and certainly, with the discussions which had taken place, they would be of great assistance to all who would have to work under the Act.

As Mr. Craies said, "a tremendous lot of ink would "be spilt before matters were in proper working order," but the Act was there, and it was their duty as surveyors to try to make it a success as far as they possibly could. He trusted that the new officer who had been appointed by the Local Government Board would be sympathetic

with any schemes which might be put before him, and thus greatly assist in carrying out those schemes. In his opinion, and as instanced by Mr. Howard Martin, towns which had been dealt with and land which had been laid out by competent surveyors had really already carried out many of the objects of this Town Planning Act.

They would very seldom have to provide towns or new garden cities like their friend Mr. Ebenezer Howard had had to do at Letchworth, but they would have to plan out the land around their villages and towns, and it was to such extension that they would have to give their attention, and use their best endeavours to make it successful. Main roads had in most cases already been supplied by the foresight of our forefathers, who had generally taken up the best line and had shown great skill in calculating and considering the contours of the lands, and they, as surveyors, would have to advise their clients, who had lands lying between those main roads, how they could utilise that land to the best advantage and for the general good of the community.

The building by-laws as to the making of roads and the width of streets were frequently spoken against as obstacles to good town planning, and he had for many years advocated that these powers should be relaxed, but a difficulty had always arisen as to when the relaxation should take place, and the fear that there would be favouritism unless hard-and-fast rules were laid down. In the future, with the consent of the Local Government Board, cheaper roads of varying width would be possible under certain conditions.

With regard to the question of tree-planted streets, although they must all agree as to their attraction, he thought they had to consider that when those trees were grown up they had to be cut and mutilated in order to keep them within certain limits. He would instance

Beckenham. He knew that estate when it was first laid out, and being in the hands of one landowner it was laid out to great advantage, but the trees which were planted along the sides of the footpaths had now quite outgrown what had been intended, and had to be cut and spoilt. Mr. Lanchester's suggestion that it would be advisable to break the line of streets by setting back the frontages here and there, and to plant groups of trees in the recesses appealed to him greatly. It would have a most artistic effect, and by getting rid of the straight lines of buildings would add very much to the beauty of their streets.

He thought Mr. Davidge had very ably summed up the duties of the town planning authorities at page 61 of his Paper, but he did not think anyone at the present moment at all events had any idea who those authorities were to be. No doubt time would evolve some central authority which would be an advisory board on these matters, but practical men, with brains and knowledge, expected some reward for the time they gave up, and then came the question who was to pay for their advice.

One Member had suggested that The Institution or the Council of The Institution might have prepared some memorandum and laid down some rules. If they were approached by the authorities and asked to assist, they would of course do so, but he thought they must feel that it would be going beyond their province if they were to draw up a memorandum and lay that down as a code.

He felt sure that they had all very much enjoyed the two Papers, and they were much indebted to Mr. Davidge and Mr. Willmot and to those gentlemen who had taken part in the discussion, especially to Mr. Lanchester for the very excellent slides he had shown at their last Meeting.

The Meeting then adjourned.

Paper 362.
No. 552.

LAND BANKS AND SMALL HOLDINGS.

By ROBERT M. D. SANDERS (Fellow).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, February 21st*, 1910.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

Introduction.

The Council of The Institution have kindly invited me to place before you my views on land banks and small holdings. I hope to suggest how small holdings may be considerably increased in Great Britain by the creation of occupying freeholds, and the ways and means of accomplishing this object will be considered under the heading of "Land Banks."

On the Continent, since the days of Frederick the Great, much more interest has been displayed in measures for encouraging a closer settlement on the land than has been the case in Great Britain. The British public are now for the first time awakening to the importance of the subject. My desire is to convince the enthusiasts of both political parties that a policy of "the land for the people" can be successfully carried out by the goodwill, commonsense and patriotism of those who now have the control of and the principal interests in the land, without any of that violent dislocation which would undoubtedly follow the adoption of any scheme based upon State interference in the purchase, sale and management of land.

Present State of Agriculture.

Agriculture is our greatest national industry, and, considered from the point of view of the most economical way of producing corn and rearing the best class of live stock, has unquestionably prospered under the English land system. Statistics, however, show that there has been an enormous depreciation in the gross annual output from agricultural land during the past twenty years. It has been otherwise in other countries. The cause is due to our dependence on foreign food supplies and the small consideration shown by the State to the wants of the agricultural community. The great nations who compete with us on the Continent in industrial life have encouraged an increase in the agricultural population of their countries. Thus the production of the land, and the capacity of the people for industrial development, have been extended together, although it may be shown that the British Isles are better fitted by nature for intensive cultivation than most parts of Germany and France.

Existing Distribution of the Three Interests, viz., Landowners, Farmers, and the Labourers.

It is well to consider the existing distribution of the three interests in the land.

The first are the landowners, who have supplied a vast capital variously estimated from one thousand to fifteen hundred millions sterling, which has been sunk in the ownership and in the development of their estates. Excluding the owners of small freeholds and home farms, very few cultivate their own land, except when forced to do so by the surrender of tenancies. The next important class, the farmers, own a comparatively small

portion of the capital in real property, but the total value of their working capital including tenant right is computed to be nearly three hundred millions sterling. And the third class, the agricultural labourers, have practically no interest beyond their weekly hire and the furniture of their cottages.

The following tables, prepared from a study of the census and other Government returns, for relative comparison, I think, may be assumed to be fairly accurate.

Owners.

England and Wales.

Acres.		
	Large Estates.	
Over 500	10,000 landowners own *22,000,000 acres	or about 66 %
	Medium Estates.	
100 to 500	32,000 landowners own 7,000,000 acres	or about 20 %
	Small Estates.	
50 to 100	26,000 landowners own 1,800,000 acres	or about 5 %
	Very Small Estates.	
Under 50	195,000 landowners own 2,230,000 acres	or about 9 %

Scotland.

Over 500	2,700	landowners own	*18,000,000 acres	or about 96 %
100 to 500	2,300	„	560,000 „	2·9 %
50 to 100	1,210	„	90,000 „	0·5 %
Under 50	13,000	„	110,000 „	0·6 %

Farmers.

	England.	Scotland.
Over 500 acres	5,000	1,000
100 to 500 acres	79,000	15,000
50 to 100 acres	55,000	10,000
5 to 50 acres	200,000	33,000
	339,000	59,000

* Included in this is a large area of non-agricultural land such as mountains and commons.

Agricultural Labourers (according to 1901 Census).

	1881.	1891.	1901.
England and Wales ...	1,352,544	1,285,146	1,197,922
Scotland	240,131	213,060	205,007

The uniform reduction in numbers of agricultural labourers having steadily continued, the figures for England would now be about 1,000,000, and for Scotland 200,000; total, 1,200,000 for Great Britain.

The persons engaged in manufactures and commerce in Great Britain number over 11,000,000, or about seven times the number of agricultural labourers and farmers combined.

In Ireland the proportion is about equal.

In France and Germany the proportions are also about equal.

Small Holdings.

It is admitted on all sides that a movement back to the land is desirable, and that the number of small holdings ought to be increased. But it is sometimes forgotten that there are already a considerable number of small holdings in existence, and the following table, taken from the last Report of the Board of Agriculture, gives some interesting information on the subject, showing how land occupations are distributed between the various classes of landholders, whether freeholders or tenants. The percentage under freeholds shows the proportion between the freeholds and the tenancies in that particular class.

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF AGRICULTURAL HOLDINGS IN EACH OF THE UNDERMENTIONED CLASSES, DISTINGUISHING "OWNED AND RENTED."

COUNTIES.	Above 1 and not exceeding 5 acres.		Above 5 and not exceeding 50 acres.		Above 50 and not exceeding 300 acres.		Above 300 acres.	
	Owned.	Rented.	Owned.	Rented.	Owned.	Rented.	Owned.	Rented.
ENGLAND - -	13,129	66,708	22,368	142,897	10,656	99,174	2,238	12,413
Percentage -	16·44	—	13·53	—	9·70	—	15·28	—
WALES - -	1,105	9,016	3,616	28,337	1,692	16,342	65	325
Percentage -	10·92	—	11·32	—	9·38	—	16·67	—
SCOTLAND- -	1,198	16,938	2,489	32,112	2,243	20,895	489	2,184
Percentage -	6·61	—	7·19	—	9·69	—	18·29	—
GREAT BRITAIN	15,432	92,662	28,473	203,346	14,591	136,411	2,792	14,922
Percentage -	14·28	—	12·28	—	9·66	—	15·76	—

The number of small holdings, including both small freeholds and small tenancies, are fairly numerous in comparison with the total number of farmers.

OWNERSHIP *v.* TENANCY.

Everyone is agreed that the number of small holdings should be increased, but the question is, should they be freeholds or tenancies? I am strongly in favour of freeholds.

All European nations except Great Britain in reforming their feudal land systems have encouraged the creation of small occupying freeholds. This has given strength and stability to the State, and is an assurance against any organised attack of the democracy on the minority of big landowners which is so often a temptation to the demagogue. The advantage of increasing small

occupying owners in a democratic country like ours seems self-evident from a study of the above figures, but there are clearly two schools of thought on the subject. From whatever standpoint the question is viewed, however, the gradual increase in the number of small and moderately sized freehold occupations will be found to be beneficial if not essential to the welfare of the nation.

The opponents of small ownerships declare first that there is no demand for them; secondly, that small ownerships have proved a failure in the past, instancing the case of our yeoman class, whom they say preferred to sell their freeholds and become tenants to the great landowners; and, thirdly, that land nationalisation and State tenancy is the right solution of the question. The working of the Small Holdings Act is frequently quoted as evidence that there is no demand for ownership. The Report of the Small Holdings Commissioners states that in the first year of the working of the Act "a striking feature of the applications made under the "Act has been the small extent to which the applicants "desire to purchase their holdings. Out of the 23,295 "applications received during the year, only 629, "or 2·7 per cent., expressed the wish to purchase." But surely the desire to purchase must depend largely upon the conditions under which the land is to be sold and the encouragement which the State or public bodies are prepared to give to the small holder when he is established. Under the Small Holdings Act money cannot be borrowed at a lower rate than 3½ per cent. by the County Council. Added to that is the sinking fund and all expenses connected with the purchase of the land. There is also the interest upon the capital sum required for the erection of suitable offices, and under our local

by-laws they must often be erected in an extravagant manner. The small owner knows too well that he cannot meet such a heavy annual expenditure, and prefers to go to a local landlord and rent a small holding from him. The same argument was put forward in Ireland against Mr. Bright when he succeeded in introducing Land Purchase Clauses in the Act of 1870. It was true that the terms upon which the Irish small holder could purchase were too onerous, and land purchase in Ireland made no progress in consequence until Mr. Balfour in 1885 passed the first measure of that great Irish policy of rooting the peasant to the soil which is associated with his name. I am convinced that if advances were offered on more generous terms there would, as in the case of Ireland, be a growing and constant demand for small ownerships in England.

Dealing with the second argument, the disappearance of our yeoman class commenced with the great Free Trade movement of the forties. The Cobdenites looked with envy on the landed interest, for they perceived that if that interest were united and strong, Free Trade could not be carried. Everything was therefore done to weaken the hold of the people upon the land. After Free Trade came in a period of agricultural distress followed. The Liberal Party, led by Lord John Russell, refused a remedy. The small owners were the first to fall. The great landowner was taught by the Free Traders that land must be worked on a system of large farms. He alone had the capital to purchase the small freeholds which were bankrupted by Free Trade. Adding them to his large estate the houses and homesteads gradually disappeared. He endeavoured by the creation of large farms to compete against foreign competition. Had the

yeoman class at that period been preserved; had there been a little sympathy and protection granted to them in their troubles, which were due to that very system which was to enrich the manufacturer and encourage the growth of towns, they would no doubt have weathered the storm, and occupying freeholds would not only have continued but increased in numbers. The real objection of the Radical and Socialist to the system of small freeholds is that it tends to destroy their pet idea, the nationalisation of the land.

Land Nationalisation.

Hitherto little attention has been given to the development of this idea, but the reality is now apparent in the Land Clauses of the Budget. A capital valuation of the whole of the landed interest of the United Kingdom is to take place. For the present the nation's share in the land is to be a proportion of increment value, increased death duties, undeveloped land tax, reversion duty, increased stamp duties on transfer, and a share of the mineral rights, in addition to those taxes which are common to other property. This is admitted to be only the first step for forcing land into the market, and we have had experience in Ireland of what forcing land into the market means. Under the domination of the Land agitation the fee simple interest of the landowners was rendered an unsaleable commodity, so that they might be induced to sell at a low price to the State.

Are the principles underlying the Budget copied from the agrarian movement in Ireland? Mr. Lecky's views are worth quoting.* "Mr. Parnell was quite

* *Democracy and Liberty*, by Lecky, vol. i., cap. ii.

"prepared to advocate the purchase by the tenants "of their farms, but he desired in the first place to beat "down their cost to a mere fraction of the natural value. "This was to be accomplished by a violent conspiracy and "intimidation; by a systematical breach of contract and "repudiation of rent; by throwing the country into a "state of anarchy, in which all market transactions in "land were paralysed. The English Socialist differs in "his means, but not in his end. He seeks by a special "and confiscatory taxation to reduce to a mere nominal "value the property he desires to appropriate."

Again, "It is idle to suppose that such a precedent "can be confined to Ireland, or Irish land, or Irish "landlords. With the suffrage that gives the pre-"dominant power to the very ignorant and the very "poor; in an age when every kind of predatory theory "referring to property is in the air, and when the "province of State interference is continually extending, "and under a constitution which gives no special pro-"tection to contracts, such a precedent is certain to "grow."

"Once admitted it soon becomes a starting point or "logical premise, and is pushed into new fields and new "consequences."

How to Finance Small Ownerships.

Assuming that there ought to be a large increase in small occupying ownerships, how are they to be financed? It is clear that capital must be provided for the purchase of the holding, and for the equipment and stocking of the farm. I do not believe in placing men without capital and agricultural knowledge on the land, but there are many hard-working small farmers and agricultural workers who have been thrifty enough

to save a little capital, and there are others who may not have the actual cash, but are possessed of good character and credit. The purchase money should be advanced to them on the annuity principle, repaying principal and interest over a period of years, and the interest must be low. This capital should be provided either by the State direct or through land banks. The capital for the equipment of the farms, and for providing a small sum in cash which may be necessary to make up the full purchase money, might be found through the co-operative credit institutions on the plan suggested by Mr. Wolff and the Co-operative Banks Association.

Mr. Jesse Collings proposed in his Bill that the State should advance the whole of the purchase money upon the same terms as to tenant purchasers in Ireland, through the issue of $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. Government Stock. It is admitted on all sides that Mr. Wyndham's land purchase scheme has been a great success. Out of half a million agricultural holdings in Ireland, of which the majority are under 30 acres, more than half are in the hands of peasant proprietors. They pay no capital sum, but the purchase money is repaid by a terminal annuity at $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., of which 10*s.* per cent. provides a sinking fund to redeem the principal in sixty-eight years.

The Treasury are well secured against the default of the tenant, because any loss which may fall under this head is deducted from the equivalent grant in aid of local taxation and other grants payable to Ireland in common with the grants payable to England and Scotland. Experience proves, however, that the Irish tenant purchaser pays the annuity with wonderful punctuality, and practically little loss has occurred.

Mr. Balfour, in his speech at Birmingham in September, 1909, said: "There is no measure with which "I am more proud to have been connected than with that "giving peasant ownership in such large measure to "Ireland, and I hope to see a great extension of such "ownership in England. Nothing can be more desirable "and important." And again, "I therefore look forward "with hope and great expectation to the time when a "Government may come in—not hampered, clogged, and "bound by the socialistic crochets—which may do in its "measure, and adapt to the very different conditions of "life in this country, what a Unionist Government has "already done with such marked success for a sister "island." I do not know whether the forecast of this policy includes a plan for making State advances to found occupying ownerships in England. There are difficulties in England which do not occur in Ireland.

In the first place, in Ireland the problem is the conversion of an existing rent into a terminal annuity, the landlord receiving the purchase price of that rent. The security to the State being the fee simple of the land includes also the tenants' interest in the land. Thus, if the State lends £500 to buy out the landlord, the tenants' interest may be worth £200 to £300, and the actual security mortgaged to the State is not £500 but £700 to £800. On this side of the Channel improvements have been carried out by the owners, and English landowners cannot therefore afford to accept less than the inclusive price. Again, if occupying ownerships in England are to become very numerous, the demands on the State might be so large that, although the security was excellent, large issues of Government Stock to pay for the land might seriously interfere with the borrowing powers of the nation in times of difficulty and stress. I

suggest that the methods employed abroad, which are almost universally based upon voluntary effort, are well worthy of consideration by those who may have the carrying out of the policy thus indicated by Mr. Balfour.

Land Banks.

The foundation of all business is credit. This principle applies to land as well as to commerce, but agricultural borrowing is not necessarily parallel with that of commerce. In agriculture, especially when the landholder is also proprietor, credit represents not merely an actual business transaction, but a product of real or personal property or both. It may be an advance to provide for the growth of a crop, an advance upon existing crop, or an advance upon the land and stock of a farm. This form of credit is an exceedingly safe transaction for the lender, being based upon actual production or on real and productive property. It is also safe for the borrower, since it is merely the anticipation of a crop, or the temporary mobilization of part of the capital possessed by the peasant in his land and stock. Our commercial law, which has done so much for British trade and commerce, is inapplicable to the necessities of our greatest industry, agriculture. Agricultural credit should be safe and cheap, but unfortunately it is precisely the credit which is the dearest and most burdensome to the borrower. During the past few years many provincial banks which used to help their agricultural clients have become absorbed in the great joint stock banks, and the small holder or peasant who wants cash credit finds great difficulty in obtaining it on profitable terms. If small holdings, whether ownerships or tenancies, are to succeed there should be

a reform in the law, so that land and agricultural credit may be placed upon a sound basis.

In every European country but the British Isles this principle is understood. Land banks must not be confounded with agricultural banks. The two forms of credit are distinct, the one is credit based upon real property the other is credit based upon personal or chattel interest. Both are necessary for the development of small ownership, but time does not permit me to deal with both within the limits of one Paper. A land bank is, in fact, a mortgage bank.

Germany.

The earliest land bank, known as the "Land-"schaften," was established in Silesia in 1769 by Frederick the Great. It was an association in which all the nobles who held land in the provinces were obliged to join, whether they wished to borrow or not, all their lands being held eventually liable for all loans guaranteed by the association or its members. This forced guarantee of all the estates has long since been relaxed, and only the estates of borrowers are now considered responsible. At first the association merely acted as intermediary and found a lender for each loan; the specific property was mortgaged to the lender. The association added its guarantee that the property covered the loan and that interest and principal would be paid according to the contract. The practice was that the borrower executed a mortgage deed to the association against which it issued its own debentures, and these were then cashed on the market. The next development was when the association undertook the collection of interest on the loans and the payment to the

creditors, namely, the holders of the bank's debentures which were issued against the respective properties. In case of default the bank paid the interest due which they collected from the defaulter by the special and summary procedure provided for by the law. The association then provided a cash reserve fund out of profits and a guarantee reserve from a small commission payable by the borrowers.

Numerous associations were formed which were eventually merged into one institution and became a mortgage bank in the true sense, the bank lending on all landed property up to a certain margin of security, and raising the capital by debentures issued in series on the Stock Exchange. Similar institutions were established in other German States. They are mutual associations of landowners without share capital, their profits being applied to the building up of a reserve fund. These banks enabled Stein to carry out his great policy for the emancipation of the peasant, and to establish a great number of small freehold properties. It should be observed that the State did not provide the funds, but the banks were entitled to certain privileges, remission of fees and stamp duties, and had summary powers for collecting debts.

All the older institutions are run on the principles of mutual credit, but in 1860 the law authorised the establishment of real credit institutions formed on the joint stock principles. These land mortgage banks are banks of lenders or capitalists. Within recent years their business has increased very considerably and is now overtaking that of the mutual banks. They are commercial concerns and generally receive deposits, discount bills, and lend to public bodies and agricultural associations, but this part of their business is secondary, they are in the main mortgage

debenture banks. A public official called a conservator of mortgages represents the debenture holders. Debentures can only be issued with his sanction, and there must be a sufficient amount of mortgages to represent the amount of the debentures issued, and each of those mortgages must be secured upon property of sufficient value to satisfy this official. The conservator has the right of accepting or rejecting specific mortgages if not satisfactory. He supervises the repayment of debts, periodically inspects all books, and prepares in consultation with the directors the register of repayments to capital, and requires a corresponding extinction of debentures or a deposit of further debt bonds. He also summons annually a meeting of debenture holders and they elect two auditors to assist him. This practice establishes a wholly independent check over bad management and is most satisfactory in its working.

The Mortgage Debenture Act, 1865, which applies to England and Wales only, was intended to be worked on the same principles. One Company only—the Land Securities Company—was formed under it but failed to carry out the expectations of its founders, principally on account of there being but little provision for supervision and revaluation. The Company also appears to have advanced too much money on building properties.

To give a more detailed description of the working of these German land bank's would occupy too much of your time, but the following table will give an idea of the enormous transactions which are now being carried out in the German Empire by the various classes of land banks. The banks selected are those principally concerned in the organisation of real credit in country parts, but others are numerous which deal with urban properties.

MORTGAGE DEBENTURE ISSUES OF THIRTEEN OF THE PRINCIPAL PRUSSIAN LAND MORTGAGE BANKS.

Total Issues, being the Aggregate at date named.	Land Bank of Silesia.	Nobles' and Large Land-owners' Credit Institute.	Pomeranian Land Bank.	West Prussian Land Bank.	East Prussian Land Bank.	Posen Land Bank.	New West Prussian Land Bank.	Land Bank of Saxony.	New Brandenburg Credit Institute.	New Pomeranian Land Bank.	Land Bank of Westphalia.	Land Credit Institute of Schleswig-Holstein.	Schleswig-Holstein Land Bank.	Summary.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1866	8,641,030	2,692,136	3,866,703	3,285,290	3,034,773	2,849,895	367,525	83,021	—	—	—	—	—	24,820,376
1876	12,036,545	4,656,051	7,466,526	6,398,662	6,681,858	8,452,050	1,660,458	395,122	43,832	10,796	—	—	—	47,801,903
1886	16,571,052	7,846,954	10,633,575	7,776,301	11,234,226	12,054,175	4,400,320	1,856,583	2,003,210	51,457	1,068,545	294,655	—	75,791,056
1896	23,669,471	9,870,208	11,590,713	7,239,078	15,849,446	13,072,520	5,426,834	4,480,828	5,724,800	314,757	2,303,765	547,610	—	100,090,033
1906	29,319,273	9,573,153	12,768,927	6,380,914	20,631,863	15,357,045	8,620,648	7,528,885	7,092,445	1,307,200	3,721,205	2,020,865	1,035,807	125,358,233

The debentures carry 4 per cent., $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and 3 per cent. interest according to the dates of issue :—

£5,923,476 are at 4 per cent.

£93,028,737 are at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

£26,361,287 are at 3 per cent.

The price of the debentures on the Bourse gives within a fraction the same yield as the Government Funds.

France.

In France, for some years prior to 1852, great attention was devoted to the demands of rural credit; commissions were sent to inquire into German methods, discussions took place in the Legislative Assembly, and systems without number were proposed and afterwards dropped. The results obtained in Germany by the Landschaften, which I have just described, were little known there, although a great French financier and economist described the German theory and practice in an interesting publication.

In 1845 the French Government sent M. Royer, Inspector of Agriculture, to Germany to study the system. His report resulted in the Government taking the matter up. A commission of economists, financiers, and lawyers, drew up a plan which was sanctioned by the law of 28th February, 1852. This law did not establish, but it favoured the establishment of land credit societies. Its object was the redemption of the mortgage debt of France and the development of agriculture by the issuing of loans upon mortgages for lengthy terms repayable by annuities, the loans being financed by debentures secured upon the mortgages and bearing interest.

Crédit Foncier Society.—General History.

In March, 1852, a powerful society was formed to work within the limits of the Appellate Court of Paris, and two others followed immediately in Marseilles and Nevers. All the societies, after authorisation by a Government Commission who revised their statutes and demands, were placed under the supervision of a special branch of

the administration. It was, however, believed that a single society for the whole of France, having branches or agencies in various centres, would command better credit for its debentures than a number of small societies, and before work was fairly begun the three societies were merged in one called the "Crédit Foncier de "France," and obtained a monoply of transactions based upon the Act for twenty-five years.

Various errors were committed at first, and new decrees were required, but in 1854 the society was fairly established, and certain restrictions which prevented its financial liberty of action were removed; amongst other things its administration was freed from the direct control of a Government Department, and was entrusted to a Governor and Sub-Governor nominated by the Emperor. The society, moreover, reorganised its methods, withdrew its local branches, which cost much and produced little, and established relations with the Treasury officers of the departments (districts); it also accepted deposits on account current.

Gradually by prudence in administration, which was strictly supervised by a Government official, it obtained the confidence of the public. In 1859 its transactions had grown to £1,000,000 in long term loans, and £300,000 in short term loans, and its 4 per cent. debentures were quoted a little below par.

In 1858 it issued on Government credit £4,000,000 for drainage loans, hitherto unsuccessfully attempted by the Government itself. Its obligations which now exceed £203,000,000 are issued in several series, but the great part are at 3 per cent., and its ability to raise money compares very favourably with the French Government Funds.

There is now no State guarantee, the Institution is

financed wholly by the public, partly by its large share capital, but principally by the issue of its debentures.

It enjoys, however, certain privileges :—

1. At first the Government gave a subvention of £400,000 as a guarantee fund ; the Government also, as evidence of belief in the society's stability, bought a quantity of its debentures and permitted the departments to do the same.
2. It is under the immediate supervision of the State finance department. Its Governor and Sub-Governor are appointed by the Government, but paid by the Crédit Foncier. Three of its directors must be high Government officers of finance.
3. It has the privilege of using the Government treasuries for the deposit of securities.
4. The duty which it pays on land registration, stamps, and transfers are upon a reduced scale.
5. Its debentures are recognised by the Courts as available for trust and public investments.
6. It has also the privilege of what is called "purge," which places the bank in a very secure position as first mortgagee, free from all possible claims of third parties, and the law provides for a cheap and speedy method for the collection of its debts.

Austria and Hungary.

In Austria and Hungary land banks are in nearly every particular similar to those in German. We find there the mutual banks of which the leading one is the Land Credit Institution of Hungary, a quasi-public body founded by a number of great proprietors. It has no

share capital and pays no dividends. It was started with a foundation guarantee fund of £140,000 in cash and security bonds furnished by 209 wealthy landowners. The Government gave a subvention of £41,666; it is under Government control and enjoys certain privileges, such as freedom from income tax, stamp duty on debentures, and summary procedure through the Commercial Court in the recovery of arrears. The profits of the bank are applied to a reserve fund and to cheapening the rate of interest charged to the borrowers. The Board of Directors give their services free, and the founders were satisfied to accept 5 per cent. interest on the original cash provided for in the guarantee fund. Its operations are very extensive, and its debentures are on a par with the Government funds.

There are also the Joint Stock Mortgage Banks which do a large mortgage business on similar lines to the mortgage banks of Germany, the principal one being the Austro-Hungarian Bank.

Denmark.

The Danish Government during the past generation have paid great attention to the encouragement of small ownerships, and in 1899 an Act was passed giving special facilities to agricultural labourers to purchase small holdings. Denmark has no mineral wealth and few manufacturies. Consequently agriculture is the only great national industry. In this respect Denmark resembles Ireland; she is also her greatest competitor in the English market in food supplies. In every district corresponding to our county council there is a committee of agriculture which assists any worthy labourer to obtain a small farm. A loan through a land bank is made of nine-tenths the purchase money, provided the

sum does not exceed £330, the interest charged on the loan is 3 per cent., but for the first five years no interest is paid. Thus, if a man buys a farm for £300, £270 is advanced and he pays only £30 in cash. The land bank advances a sum sufficient to equip the farm with buildings, and this is paid back on the same terms as the purchase money. The land bank raises capital to provide the advances by the issue of bonds carrying a State guarantee. The State also grants certain privileges to the bank including freedom from stamp duty, subventions for initial expenses, and cost of valuation.

A loan cannot be called in so long as the instalments are punctually paid and the property properly managed. Security for the loan includes not only the property but the buildings and the animals, none of which can be charged with any other mortgages so long as more than half the original loan remains outstanding. The bank has summary powers for collection by distraint.

The small holdings in Denmark have rapidly increased during the last fifty years. It is now calculated that over one-third of the people in rural districts live and own farms of less than 11 acres.

Conclusion.

Although State interference is undesirable, yet it is the duty of the State so to legislate that no impediment shall stand in the way of voluntary effort. All our laws dealing with commercial transactions in land are cumbersome and inconvenient.

A simple Act of Parliament might be passed to favour the registration of land mortgage institutions, just as we have a special code to facilitate the establishment of building societies and of industrial societies.

In such an Act the following provisions should be made:—

1. A public official should be called upon to act and perform the duties of the conservator of mortgages as in Prussia. He should see that mortgage debentures were in no case issued beyond the aggregate value of the securities deposited with him, and he should also supervise the valuation of those securities.

2. Land credit institutions or land banks should be specially registered as such, either with or without share capital.

3. Power should be given to form a central land bank which might be a joint stock company having a large capital, only a portion of which need be paid up. The paid-up capital might be placed in investments approved of by the conservator of mortgages to form a guarantee fund and be collateral security to the bondholders who would also have a further security in the un-called up capital.

This bank should be authorised to make advances to occupiers, and other suitable applicants, for the purchase of land to an amount certified for by an independent valuer appointed by the conservator of mortgages. Four-fifths of the full value of the land, exclusive of buildings, might thus safely be advanced.

4. The State should grant certain privileges, viz., freedom from stamp duty, transfer fees, &c., and should also grant to the central land bank the same power as is possessed by the Crédit Foncier for the summary collection of its instalments.

5. In the case of every peasant owner there should be compulsory registration of land, as in the case of tenant purchasers in Ireland. The first registration should be made free of expense.

With these legislative facilities any landowner who contemplated the sale of an estate, if the land were suitable for small holdings, might plan out, through his agent and advisers, a suitable scheme, to be submitted or not, beforehand to the land bank. On giving a guarantee for the preliminary expense of valuation, the bank would state what sums they would advance upon the various divisions or lots. The landowner would then be able to ascertain whether suitable applicants were forthcoming. If there was no demand for small ownerships very little expense would have been incurred.

Every local association also should hold a certain proportion of share capital in the central bank. Within the limits of this Paper I can but indicate very generally the principles of such a scheme. To do more would occupy too much of your time. I thank you for the patient hearing which you have so kindly afforded me.

The Hon. E. G. STRUTT (Vice-President) said he rose with the greatest pleasure to propose a vote of thanks to Mr. Sanders for his valuable Paper. It was on a subject which was causing great interest at that moment and everybody was discussing it, both in the agricultural and in the political world—this latter was perhaps rather unfortunate.

The statistics given in the early part of the Paper were most interesting, although it was somewhat startling to find that two-thirds of the land in England and Wales was owned by 10,000 proprietors. In Scotland the figures were more surprising still, as 2,700 proprietors owned 96 per cent. of the land, but no doubt in

this case there were large districts of moor and mountain which were practically of no value at all.

Mr. Sanders also told them that more than half the farms in England were holdings of between five and fifty acres. He thought that would be rather an eye-opener to some people, but he believed the reason was that in those places which were most suitable for small holdings, small holdings to a great extent already existed, and the large estates managed by the members of The Institution had probably provided small holdings for those who wanted them. No doubt in many cases there was still a demand for more holdings than at present existed, and although he was not one of those who thought that England could be cut up into universal small holdings—some land being quite unsuitable for them—it was true that some land was available which had not been used up to the present, and he therefore welcomed the 1907 Act.

Among the chief advantages of small holdings was the attention which could be given to detail. Every large farmer knew how much he lost by not being able to attend to detail. For one thing, a good deal of work could be got out of the women and children of the family, they could look after poultry, milk a cow, and do a little work in the fields.

It was very important that opportunities to rise should be given to the working men in the villages; one of the reasons why there had been such a large exodus from the country to the towns was because there had been so few opportunities for men to rise in village life; the ablest and most pushing of their young men had therefore left the country. Something should also be done to provide more amusement in the villages; that would keep young men in the country far more than they were kept now.

He had the honour to be on the committee of the county council of his own county and so had come across a good many of the applicants for small holdings, and he found that a very large proportion of the applicants did not wish to remove from their present abodes. What they hoped to get, perhaps, was a field opposite their cottages, very likely a farmer's best field, and when they were disappointed in that and were offered land a little further off they did not wish to have it. Other applicants would not leave their present houses to go to small holdings with houses thereon even if offered them. He thought that an applicant for a small holding who would not go into a suitable place because he would not leave his old home was not very keen about it. He had been struck with the amount of money possessed by many agricultural labourers. It was quite astonishing to find men whom they would not have thought to have a shilling in the world had got £50 or £100 in the bank.

Where small holdings were not possible it would help greatly if the large farmers would give their labourers an opportunity of profit-sharing, and so enable all classes of agricultural labourers to have an interest in the land.

Whatever was done in the way of small holdings, it would be absolutely impossible for them to succeed in a large way unless an effort were made to form co-operative societies and for them to work together; they were utterly handicapped without co-operative societies of some sort. And no doubt the creation of a larger number of small holdings would add to the competition, and make it more difficult to live than it had been in the past when the numbers were smaller.

As regards the knotty point of ownership and

tenancy, personally he was in favour of ownership, though he had come to that conclusion with great diffidence, because he knew many people whose opinion he valued very much, and who were not in favour of land nationalisation, who were in favour of tenancy; but still he could not help feeling, taking it altogether, that the magic of ownership was so great that he should like to see it tried. Mrs. Wilkins had written a very clever and ingenious pamphlet to prove that tenancy rather than ownership was best for the small holder. The chief argument that she gave, the really serious one, was that there was a risk of the owner of a holding selling his farm to a large landowner or otherwise disposing of it. He felt that that was an obstacle which was rather difficult to get over, but he thought the ingenuity of man was such that it might be done in some way, at any rate during the course of the payments. The idea was that if tenancies were created they were created for ever, and if the county council bought they would last for ever, but that if ownerships were created there was a danger after a generation or two of the owner selling his land to a large buyer. He could not help feeling, however, that in the future the large buyer would not be quite so keen to buy up the small owner as he had been in the past.

Another difficulty mentioned by Mrs. Wilkins was that if an owner wanted a bigger farm it was very difficult for him to sell. For himself, he did not see much difficulty in that; he thought he could probably sell his holding to some other small man, and perhaps buy another larger holding. If he had done well and made a small fortune he could go and rent some other land in another place and become a large farmer.

A third suggestion was that it took a part of the

tenant's capital, in that he had to use a certain amount of his capital in paying a deposit for buying the land. That no doubt was so, but if these agricultural banks, which he hoped to see, were established, he thought they might help in providing the deposit, as they would doubtless in providing the equipment of the farm.

On the other hand there was the magic of ownership, which he thought was common to everyone; everybody liked to have something of his own, and it seemed rather hard that the agricultural labourer and the small holder should not share in that as well as other people. At the present moment the county council expenditure on the management of the tenancy system was considerable; he thought that point had been rather overlooked by some of the advocates of tenancy. He considered it must be put at at least 2*s*. an acre, and some people would say more. It would be avoided altogether in the case of ownership. Therefore he thought that this fact, and the great social advantages, and the great advantage to the State as a whole that there should be more owners of land, counterbalanced the economic advantages of tenancies. Mrs. Wilkins assumed in all her arguments that the county council had bought the land, but his experience was that though county councils in some cases bought their land, in many cases they hired it. In his own county they had hired land, and it was very possible that at the end of the term the land would be worth more money, in which case the rent would rise and the tenant would find he had to pay more rent. That was of course on the assumption that the rent of land was inclined to rise, which he thought they might accept at the present moment. His own view was that it was a very good time to start peasant owners, because there was a possibility that land would, if any-

thing, rise is value, from the rental point of view at any rate.

Mr. Sanders had given them some very interesting information about land banks in Germany, France, Austria, Hungary, and Denmark, and he appeared to have come to a general conclusion at the end in which he seemed rather to ignore the Small Holdings Act of 1907, and would let it drop into oblivion altogether. That was not quite his (the speaker's) view. He thought the Act of 1907 had been a good Act on the whole, and he should be sorry to see it drop out entirely. He would like to see the county council still allowed to continue its work, to let those who wished it hire land, and those who wished it buy land.

It would be possible for the State to advance money directly, or land banks might be started, but although he would prefer to see the latter undertake the work he was doubtful whether they could do it on terms equally good for the peasant owner. He was afraid the peasant owner would find a difficulty in borrowing money at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on mortgage from the land bank, and he expected the State would have to advance the money.

At present, no doubt, the idea of purchasing had been put into the background by the county council. They had not put the idea of purchasing before the people, who therefore did not understand it.

The Act had been hitherto worked with great fairness, though possibly there might be one or two individual cases to the contrary. He was sure the county councils had acted fairly as had also the Board of Agriculture. They had however very strong compulsory powers, and there was a danger that if the administration of the Board of Agriculture fell into different hands the compulsory powers might be used so as to press very

hardly on individuals. He personally, therefore, would like to see some form of appeal as to value for people who considered that they had been hardly used. He did not know quite what the form of appeal should be, but perhaps something like the Tribunal of Appeal could be established.

The small credit co-operative banks had not received much mention. But all were agreed that whether ownership or tenancy prevailed it was very necessary to have some form of credit banks. The Agricultural Organisation Society had during the last few months started a central agricultural bank, but the smaller credit societies must start from a local source. It was impossible to start them from a distant centre. A good system of society was where ten or twelve small holders joined together in a village and called themselves a credit bank; they could then apply to a central agricultural bank and ask for a loan; the central bank would send somebody down to interview them to see if they were respectable and sensible people, and if satisfied that they were people to be trusted they would give that little society credit for so much. Every individual of that little society was responsible for the whole of the debt owing to the central bank, and they let out the money in small quantities to their applicants. By that means each member of the community, knowing exactly the position of his neighbour, saw that all the money was repaid. There were consequently no losses. He believed in Germany there had been none for sixty years. There were 15,000 of those societies, and there had been no losses at all during all that time, which was entirely owing to each individual member knowing all about his neighbour and to the fact that each was confined to the parish.

The central bank should lend at 4 per cent. to the

local society, which in its turn should lend at 5 per cent. to individuals; at the same time it could take in deposits from its members paying them 3 per cent., and if they had no use for the deposit in the local bank they could send it to the central bank, who would pay them 3 per cent. He believed in many cases in foreign countries those banks existed without any capital at all; it was all provided by the deposits. There was no doubt that that was a means of making small holdings successful, whether they were held by owners or by tenants. Such a system had been started under the Agricultural Organisation Society, and they deserved great credit for what they have done in that direction.

He wished to thank Mr. Sanders most heartily for his excellent Paper, which he had no doubt they had all heard with much pleasure.

Mr. H. Trustram Eve (Fellow) said he had very great pleasure in seconding the vote of thanks to Mr. Sanders for his able Paper. He thought one of the advantages of the Papers of The Institution was that they formed a library where Members could always go and put their hands on information on the one subject that they wanted, and find that someone had collected with great trouble all the information there was on that subject. Mr. Sanders in his Paper had done what was extremely difficult to do, collected from various sources information on land banks in connection with small holdings, for which he was sure they were all grateful.

Mr. Sanders spoke about "back to the land," a subject on which all were agreed, but he thought they would equally agree that it was impossible to expect people out of the towns to be successful if they were taken back to occupy the land unless they had only

been away a short time and were bred right from the land before they went. What they had in their minds when they cried "Back to the land" was to keep the people in the country who were already there, and those who were growing up. He could not follow Mr. Sanders in his political flights; he should be much too alarmed to do so. Coming from the sister isle perhaps Mr. Sanders was more daring than they in England in talking politics or semi-politics, though he did not know why they should not say straight out what they thought.

With regard to the 2·7 per cent. which was thrown in everyone's teeth, he preferred ownership to tenancy, but, as Mr. Strutt had said with truth, this return was absolutely misleading in its application, because he knew, with regard to the county councils he had to do with, that they had been much too busy in letting land and holding meeting after meeting to give anybody time to think about the sale of land to small holders. He had not yet heard of any county that had put a memorandum before the present occupiers of small holdings, or prospective applicants, as to the way in which they could buy their holdings. He ventured to say there was not one small holder in a thousand who had the least idea of the methods by which he could, under the present law, buy the holding which he occupied. He further ventured to say that, if the suggestion were made to him, possessing the commonsense that he knew he did, he would be only too pleased to buy rather than rent his holding.

Mr. Sanders said that the capital of small holdings ought to be got either from the State direct or from the land bank by the individual purchaser. He ventured to agree with Mr. Strutt that they could not have a better medium than the county council; the machinery

had already been established, and it was running smoothly, and he thought that the purchaser ought to deal with the State, with the county council as the medium, and that the money should come from the Public Works Loan Commissioners. He agreed with Mr. Strutt that that was the cheapest plan. He would have liked Mr. Sanders to tell them whether there was not a new Bill proposed in Denmark under which the money could be lent at 3 per cent. including the sinking fund. Of course it was rather an unfortunate time to start borrowing just now because interest was higher than it used to be, and he did not think that any taxpayer would agree that this scheme of small ownership should be run at a loss, as for instance, he understood the savings banks to be. The interest of borrowed capital should therefore be fixed at such a rate as to save the country from loss; in other words that the scheme should pay for itself.

He entirely agreed with Mr. Strutt and Mr. Sanders in being in favour of ownership rather than tenancy. In saying that he was not in the least political, because soon after the Act of 1907 came into operation he drew up a memorandum on the difference between the two, which was a couple of years before it was made the policy of one of the parties in the State. After all every new policy must be taken up by one party or the other. There was no earthly way of gaining anything in Parliament unless they got it through one party or the other; therefore to a certain extent they must be political. Personally he was so non-political that he did not care which party gave him what he wanted. As far as agriculture was concerned they ought to hang on to both parties and get all they could.

He was rather surprised that Mr. Sanders had not mentioned the Small Holdings Act of 1892 which, though it did not exist now as the 1892 Act, was incorporated with the 1907 Act in the 1908 Consolidation Act, and contained all the provisions necessary for purchase. He thought that a small amendment of the 1908 Act would give practically all that was wanted without the machinery of new land banks. Personally he could not see that land banks were wanted in England if they had an amendment of the 1908 Act. He agreed that they wanted credit banks very much. The difference between the two was that land banks would be connected with what might be called the capital side of the question and the credit banks with what might be called the income or profit and loss side. There was no doubt that small holders wanted to borrow money as far as income was concerned, and there should be co-operation in buying, selling, and borrowing, but he hated the word "mortgage" for the small holder, and did not see why money should not be borrowed on the annuity system.

Under the present law a small holder, if he were an occupying tenant, could buy his holding under the provisions of the (1892) Act, but by Section 11 he had to pay a 20 per cent. deposit, which made purchase a practical impossibility; and in his opinion that was the sole reason why the 1892 Act had not been made use of. Auctioneers only asked 10 per cent., but under the Act a small man had to put down 20 per cent.! There was power to turn one-fourth of the balance into a perpetual rent-charge, and the rest could be advanced on a basis not exceeding a 50 years' term. If a small holder did any building, then the annuity was put off for five years, because his land had increased in value. Under Section 12 he could not

sell or divide his holding for 20 years, and there was a provision for its sale by the county council if covenants were broken, and for the payment, if they sold, of any surplus to the proper person. Under Section 13 the county council had an absolute title, and if they got rid of the deposit the small holder could buy of the county council without any legal fees whatever, simply a statement on a piece of paper that the land was his.

Personally he thought these transactions should be confined to small holders, as he did not believe in tempting the large farmer to buy his farm. But suppose the county council had £1,000 to spend, and suppose they bought land worth £33 an acre, fair land in a good position, that would give 30 acres of land; under the present Act they could borrow at 3½ per cent., which was £35 a year annual charge, and they could borrow for 80 years on bare land, which worked out at ¼ per cent. for return of capital, making £2 10*s.* per annum, so the total charge for principal and interest on that £1,000 worth of land would be £37 10*s.* per annum; 30 acres divided into that £37 10*s.* worked out at an annual payment of £1 5*s.* per acre. If they liked to put on £2 10*s.* for expenses that would come to £1 6*s.* 8*d.* per annum, and if they put another 3*s.* 4*d.* for hypothetical expenses it came to 30*s.* per annum, which was an extremely reasonable figure for any small owner to stand at; at the same time he would have the deeds in his possession of land worth £33 an acre. If he got the money at 3 per cent., the cost would work out at less.

At the present moment the small occupier was paying more rent than the figures he sketched out. If the county council bought a farm at precisely the same figures and let it to a small holder, the county council would calcu-

late the cost as he had done, and would have to add 4*s.* per acre in his district and 7½ or 10 per cent. in other districts on to the £37 10*s.* per annum for collection of rent and surveyors' expenses. Mr. Strutt mentioned 2*s.* per acre, but he had made out two or three profit and loss accounts of actual working for the last year, and he found that 4*s.* an acre was not too much; at any rate that amount was required in his county. It was that cost of management which, as Mr. Strutt pointed out, killed the idea of letting; it absolutely disappeared if the land was sold, and the necessity for the employment of an agent thereby ceased; they simply had to collect the annuity, as building societies were doing every day. Consequently, though it sounded like a fairy tale, the annual payment by way of interest and sinking fund would be less for a small owner to pay than the rent which, in present circumstances, he paid to the council, and he would have the advantage of the sinking fund going into his own pocket instead of into the pockets of the county council. In other words, the small holder was at present buying the farm for the county council which could not be fair or right. He heartily seconded the vote of thanks to Mr. Sanders for his Paper.

Sir Horace Plunkett (Visitor) said he gladly associated himself with the mover and seconder of the resolution, and all the more gladly because the reader of the Paper was a personal friend and countryman of his own.

He could not pose as an authority on the subject of English small holdings, and he was afraid that he looked at the whole question from a rather different point of view to that of either Mr. Sanders or of the other

speakers. He entirely agreed with the mover of the resolution that it was most regrettable that what most men considered the crux of the question should have got into party controversy—that one side should be supposed to be in favour of ownership, and the other side of tenancy. His own belief was that it did not matter very much at that stage which view either side took, because whichever system of tenure was proved to be economically sound would ultimately prevail. Possibly the small holder might be allowed to have some say in the matter. While he himself had been very largely shaken in his preference for ownership by the arguments of Mrs. Wilkins, whom he regarded as the greatest living authority on the subject of small holdings, he would like to see the present system of tenancy coupled with every facility for a change to a system of ownership the moment it seemed desirable to do so.

He further agreed with Mr. Strutt that in dealing with the question of small holders they ought not to consider too exclusively the small holders *in futuro* or *in posse*. Mr. Sanders had shown them there was a far larger number of small holders already in the country than one person in a thousand had any idea of, and therefore, instead of crying "Back to the land," they should try to prevent people who were on the land from turning their backs to the land. Where he perhaps differed, at any rate in his perspective, was that he did not believe, except in the neighbourhood of towns and in peculiar circumstances, that under modern conditions the isolated holder was an economic possibility in this country. On the other hand, he believed that a group of small holders properly organised was probably the best way to derive the largest amount of wealth from the land, and certainly the way to build up the very

best social life upon the land. But, of course, the solution to the paradox was co-operation.

An unorganised and isolated individual as a small holder he looked upon as an absurdity. An unorganised group of small holders would be equally unsound. But they had to overcome the prejudice against co-operative methods, which, in his belief, were not in this case socialistic, but the most anti-socialistic that possibly could be devised. They must also follow the example of every country in the world where small holders had succeeded. There was no peasant proprietorship in Europe where a decent standard of comfort was permanently maintained on small holdings, which was not founded upon a very perfect system of co-operation. Therefore he regretted that Mr. Sanders did not give a little more attention in his Paper to that very important factor.

With regard to ownership, he thought the difficulty that Mrs. Wilkins pointed out as to the possible sale of the small holdings was not perhaps quite correctly stated by Mr. Strutt. At least, in conversation with her he understood her to say that her fear was not only that large proprietors would buy small holdings, but that other would-be small holders would come in and buy from the existing small holder and burden themselves, not only with the original liability on the holding, but with the profit price that they would have to give. That was one of the things they feared in Ireland, and he doubted very much whether it would be possible for the State to prevent it without taking all the gilt off the gingerbread and destroying the magic of ownership. If a plan could be suggested, well and good; but he was rather doubtful. Personally, the question did not interest him very much, and did not assume the

same importance as did the question of working out a thoroughly good organisation of agricultural production, distribution, and finance.

He was glad to notice that under the present tenancy system several groups of small holdings in England were already mutually guaranteeing the rent. That was an enormously important step, because when small holders had learnt to co-operate in a matter of such vital concern as mutually securing their rent and so practically securing permanence of tenure, it would be very easy for an organisation society to introduce every other form of co-operation in those communities.

He rather thought that some of the things which at the end of Mr. Sanders' Paper it was suggested the Government should do in order to enable the land banks and credit banks to be established were not really necessary. Perhaps if he studied the existing statutory provisions for the formation of those societies he would find most of the things which he suggested should be done were already done under the Friendly Societies Acts and the Industrial Provident Societies Acts. But far more important than all the Government could do for small holders was what they could do for themselves if they would only adopt the co-operative system. He strongly urged those present to support the Agricultural Organisation Society.

Mr. H. W. Wolff (Visitor) said Mr. Sanders would not expect him to criticise what he said, otherwise there were several points on which he held a different opinion. He was thoroughly with him in wishing that a good many small holdings might be established; and he thoroughly agreed with him that intensive cultivation was perfectly possible in this country; the word "intensive" was in fact merely a foreign translation of our "high farming."

When we took to high farming, foreigners called that "intensive farming," and now it had come back to us. They had gone one better, but we could follow them in that.

He also agreed with Mr. Sanders in wishing that there should be owner occupiers. He did not think there was so much difference of opinion on that subject. He believed that people who advocated individual tenancy on principle did not quite understand agriculture. Lord Goschen twenty-five years ago made an admirable speech explaining how in Germany the small holdings became the holders' savings banks; the small holder knew that whatever he put in he would get out in yield or in price; he therefore bestowed all the superfluous labour he could on his holding, and made it a thorough success. M. Baudrillart, who knew French rural life as no one else did, said the same thing. He said the French owner loves his holding as if it were his sweetheart, bestows all his pains on it, loves it, will not part with it, will do everything to embellish it and improve it. That was the magic of property that Arthur Young said so much about. It was not always practicable, as it called for a certain amount of money. They had been reminded that under the 1892 Act one-fifth must be paid down. You could not eat your cake and have it. If you had a sovereign you could spend it or keep it; you could spend it on land or on the improvement of land.

Then there was the question of title and transfer which was a great obstacle. He would give them an object lesson from his own experience. In 1863 he bought 1,000 acres of land in Prussia, and in 1869 he sold that 1,000 acres. In 1879 he sold a little bit of land at Deptford which his father had had since 1833. The expenses, the stamp, and the rest of it

were very much lighter on that 1,000 acres of land in Prussia than on the little bit of land in Deptford which he sold for £750. But when he bought and sold the land in Prussia he knew to the inch what was his, but in selling in Deptford it was with difficulty that he could make out what was called a twenty years' title. The man who collected the rent had collected it for just twenty years, so he made an affidavit and the land was sold on that affidavit, and then after all he found that he had sold the wrong land. While things were like that they must admit that a good deal stood in the way of dealing with land by way of ownership. Under the Land Transfer Act of 1897, every county council had a right of appealing to the Crown for the introduction of a Land Registry to make land registration obligatory, and once that was established a possessory title could be obtained which would in course of time become absolute. However, only one county in the kingdom had taken advantage of that Act, and that was the non-agricultural county of London.

The land banks, as Mr. Sanders had called them, the Landschaften of Germany, had land registers to help them, and they could deal with land by a stroke of the pen; but they were not introduced, as Mr. Sanders seemed to think, to assist land settlement; they were introduced as a feudalist measure to enable the large landowner to get his money cheap. They had been very much democratised lately, but other more co-operative systems were taking a good deal of business away from them and rendering the business far more popular.

In France the Crédit Foncier did comparatively little for the small proprietor, and that was why his friend M. Durand, who started the agricultural banks in France, had come to his rescue lending money on mortgage where really it was irregular to do so.

The law at present did not forbid the creation of ownership holdings; it only provided that if compulsory powers were employed there should be tenancy. The object of that was to avoid the diversion of the land from its proper purpose. The danger had been found a very real one in similar cases abroad; for instance, he had found many people had become speculative landlords, they had got their little house and garden, they had bought other houses, they had built storeys up, and they became sweaters.

In Prussia a scheme was started in 1891 which had much to recommend it—a sort of co-operative scheme. A landlord who wanted to sell would agree with a number of people who were willing to buy certain plots and the whole land would be laid out. It was not like an Irish landlord having tenants coming and asking that their holdings should be made their own, it was the landlord coming to an authority and saying, "I have "thirty or forty people; we have laid out the land; they "are willing to buy at such price; will you take that off "my hands and do the thing for me?" If that was agreed to, the State authority did all the surveying and the transfer and everything connected with it at a nominal charge. The man was paid only in land bonds, but he got more money than if he sold the whole estate in the market. Therefore he liked doing it. He had seen a man made to disgorge a thousand pounds at the very last moment because the Government authority would see that every holding was properly laid out, that there was a road, that there were wells, and that there was a school near; it was not just so many small holdings, it was a regular settlement which was established, a sort of village.

They had a provision under the German law by which they could make sure that this land would not

be diverted from its purpose. Under one scheme they kept back one-tenth of the purchase money so that they always remained mortgagees; under the other they could enter a title preventing the holding being dealt with without their consent; they could enter that on the Land Register. Under our Act of 1897, if we only had Land Registries in the various counties, we might probably do the same thing. For that Act gave very similar powers to people called "cautioners"—people who had no financial interest in the land but retained a right to veto a sale.

As things stood at present there was no hold over the small owner, so the Government felt bound, in cases where land was compulsorily taken to be appropriated to the purpose of small holdings, to see that it should be permanently preserved for that purpose; and when it could no longer be applied to that purpose the landlord had the right of taking it back at a certain valuation; but that so long as it was retained from him it must remain a small holding; and that they found could only be done by making it a *tenant* holding.

He had in his hand a return from the Board of Agriculture up to the 1st January, showing that the whole area dealt with under the Small Holdings Act was over 67,000 acres; by purchase 34,295 acres, by hire 24,476. Under voluntary schemes there were 21,659 acres hired and 29,585 purchased. So even under voluntary proceedings a very large amount of the land had been dealt with by hiring.

His own opinion was that some public authority ought to intervene to find either the money or the land bonds. A bank dealt with other people's money; it could not deal with money for longer than it had it, and if it were necessary to tie it up for fifty, sixty, seventy, or eighty years it must be perfectly sure that it would

have the money so long. The Landschaften were not merely banks, they were more than banks; they did not deal in a banking way; but they issued their debentures and lent the money. What was wanted was a public authority in connection with which time did not matter, which could lend its money for seventy or eighty years, the longer the better, because purchasers must have it for a long time. Credit banks and agricultural banks were a different thing altogether. They all agreed now, though at first people would not see it, that small holdings were quite impossible as a financial success unless there were credit banks to provide the small holder with a living capital.

The Earl of Shaftesbury (Visitor) said he would like to join in the chorus of praise which had been given to Mr. Sanders for his Paper. He thought it a most instructive document which gave them all food for reflection at a time when it was much needed.

There was no question that the small holdings idea was one of the greatest national importance, and he believed the whole future of the country would depend upon allowing an increase of small holdings, and in creating small ownerships. He hoped therefore as a landowner who had inherited a large estate in Dorset, he might be allowed to contribute one or two remarks in regard to the question of small holdings; and ownership as against tenancy. He began by trying to get at the mind of the small agricultural holder in country districts. He found that when the idea of ownership was first presented to him the glamour of it came over him the moment it was mentioned, but upon second thoughts he was inclined to muddle along as he was doing, because the possibilities of ownership, or the means by which he was going to own his small holding,

had never been put before him. A Paper such as they had heard that evening would help them to make up their minds as to what they wanted.

He quite agreed with preceding speakers that perhaps the land in this country was in the hands of too few people at the present moment. As a landowner the one drawback that he could see to parting with the freehold of his land, was not the personal dislike of parting with his property, but the question whether it was to the advantage of the purchaser himself. It was at least absolutely certain that if they were going to develop a system of small holdings, they must have co-operation—they must have co-operative credit.

Several persons had suggested that to allow a man to have the freehold of his land might have its drawbacks, because he might get into difficulties and find it necessary to part with his land, which might then get into undesirable hands, and in time a system of large owners would again be established and small holders might disappear. It had occurred to him, therefore, that it might be possible to have a system of very long leaseholds by which the owner might retain a kind of suzerainty over the land. By long leaseholds he meant practically leases in perpetuity. He understood that supervision could be retained over 999 years leaseholds, which could not be done if the freehold were parted with. In the interests of the country some supervision should be exercised over these small holders when they were placed on the land, and he should like that point of view put forward for future reflection.

Mr. Charles F. Lamble (Visitor) said he wished to make one remark on the possibility of doing what his lordship has just mentioned. A small holdings company in Sharnal Street, Kent, near Rochester, had already done

what his lordship had just suggested; it had given, and was then giving, to its tenants ten thousand years leases, and inserting in those leases provisions which would render it impossible for the tenants to estrange their land in any way without the consent of the parent company, and they hoped, with the hearty co-operation of the Agricultural Organisation Society, to make it a model in the district.

The vote of thanks having been put to the Meeting and carried unanimously—

Mr. Robert M. D. Sanders, in reply, thanked the proposer and seconder of the vote of thanks, and the meeting for the kind way in which they had listened to his Paper. He thought its merits were more in the discussion which it had elicited than in the Paper itself. He would have liked to have replied to the various points which had been raised, but it was too late. He had, however, made his notes, and the President had said that his reply might be published in the *Transactions*. He was extremely grateful for the kind way in which his countryman, Sir Horace Plunkett, had spoken. He would have liked to have dealt with the question of co-operation, but if he had done so they would not have got away until ten o'clock.

The Meeting then closed.

As after the discussion time did not admit of a full reply by Mr. Sanders, he has in accordance with the President's suggestion, sent the following answer to some of the points raised in the discussion of his Paper:—

In replying to the discussion I propose, as far as

possible, to deal with the points raised in order. Mr. Strutt referred to the Small Holdings Act, 1908. I do not suggest a repeal of that Act, but I am convinced that in its present form it is a source of danger to the rights of property, and not, as it ought to be, a means of leading up to the establishment of small ownerships. I see no reason why the county council should not continue to administer that Act for what it is worth, but both Mr. Strutt and Mr. Eve have shown that its administration is too expensive, costing as it does from 2*s.* to 4*s.* an acre more than the rent. This cost must fall either upon the small holder or upon the rates. In the case of ownership or where land is hired direct from the landowner this is saved, and the amount would probably be sufficient to cover the sinking fund for the redemption of the purchase money within, say, fifty years. In some counties the cost exceeds even Mr. Eve's estimate of 4*s.* an acre.

My principal objection to the Act, however, is that the Board of Agriculture can exercise compulsory powers over the county councils and can override their judgment in a most arbitrary manner. I fear that if the system is allowed to continue, and if at any time the present president of the Board is replaced by a man with stronger views on the question of land nationalisation, it will be in his power to acquire compulsorily and without any independent valuation a very large area of land at a price which may be extremely unsatisfactory to the owners, because, to make the scheme workable, the price will have to be such as will tempt tenants to take the land, and the loss will be thrown upon the landowner either in reduction of price or increased taxation. No such autocratic power, vested solely in any one minister, exists in any other civilised country.

With proper safeguards I see no reason why county councils should not continue to carry on the work of creating small holdings and small ownerships. The first should be a stepping-stone to the last. Mr. Eve mentioned the power which a county council already possesses of making advances to tenants of small holdings of four-fifths of the price when purchasing direct from the land-owner. That system might with advantage be extended, but in the existing state of the law there are many reasons why it cannot be generally taken advantage of. In the first place there has to be an existing tenancy. Then the power is discretionary and the county council must guard against loss in some way. The power is also limited and the interest charged cannot be less, but may be more than the rate fixed by the National Loan Commissioners, which is from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. The county councils do not seem very anxious to incur the responsibility, although I agree that it would be a better plan than the hiring system.

I agree with Sir Horace Plunkett that co-operation is absolutely essential to the small holder, but until a fair number of small holders or small owners have been created in a district co-operation is difficult to establish; when created, co-operation will follow as a matter of course.

The small owner wants other things too besides co-operation, such as better and cheaper facilities for the transit and sale of his produce, and some relief from the heavy burden of local taxation.

I do not think that the facilities for borrowing, already legalised under the Friendly Societies Act and Industrial Provident Societies Act are sufficient to enable land banks to be established on the German principle on any large scale.

I heartily agree with Mr. Wolff in the importance of

land registration, but that also was too big a subject for my Paper. The co-operative scheme for buying land referred to might be very useful in certain cases. It is a mistake to suppose that a land bank is in the proper sense a bank as understood in England. Our banks deal mainly in short loans; the foreign land bank is a mortgage institution and the loans may be for any period of years agreed upon, and in almost every case they are paid off by the operation of a sinking fund.

Lord Shaftesbury's suggestion for carrying out sales on the long leasehold system might work well in some instances. The great advantage of following the Continental plan is that it is more elastic than when the State lends the money direct. In the former case the State gives facilities, but does not directly provide the money, and the land bank is left a fairly free hand. The details of a scheme for any particular locality can, if the security is satisfactory to the land bank, be varied to meet the wishes of the landowner and the small purchasing farmers.

It is unfortunate that this question has become a party question, but that cannot now be prevented. Until quite recently most people, to whichever party they belonged, seemed to favour small ownerships. The idea of establishing a State or county council hiring system is new, and underlying that idea there is a certain amount of political or party feeling. I regret, too, that it is necessary to touch on a political matter, but when land becomes an object of political attack it is very difficult to deal with the subject without doing so.

I hope that the discussion may lead to some practical plan being devised for financing small owners and assisting them to live on the land in some degree of comfort and happiness.

Paper 363.
No. 553.

THE SURVEYORS' INSTITUTION

(A FORTY YEARS' RETROSPECT).

By JULIAN C. ROGERS (Honorary Member),
Secretary 1869—1905.

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, 7th March*, 1910.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

According to a modern writer the first duty of the annalist is to be interesting. It is a hard saying, for it takes no account of the nature of his theme. Of course, the best story in the world can be spoiled in the telling, but, on the other hand, no amount of skill on the part of the narrator can compensate for lack of interest in the subject itself.

Suppose, quite hypothetically, that it relates to matters of domestic rather than public interest; suppose it to be conspicuously lacking in the essential dramatic element of unexpectedness, and suppose it to be as familiar to many others as to the narrator himself—is it not at once obvious that this pleasant aphorism is of general rather than particular application! But it will not do to waste time over a case so clearly supposititious.

It is not an easy task to write the history of a business Institution. It means steering a difficult and

dangerous course between the decorous gravity so nearly allied to dullness and a chastened sprightliness, liable at any moment to lapse into flippancy: it means, further, being reminiscent without being prosy, informing without being didactic and candid without being indiscreet—a veritable Cyclades for him who would navigate it.

In mediæval times no lineage was regarded as worthy of the name that did not go back at least to Priam and the siege of Troy. The Institution cannot claim so high an antiquity or a parentage so distinguished, but, as Societies go, it has a fairly remote past, since its rudiments can be traced back one hundred and twenty years, when the Surveyors' Club was first established; and if, as the physiologists tell us, the complexity and perfection of the organism is directly proportional to the length of the period of gestation, we should be fairly well satisfied with ourselves, as no doubt we are.

The founders of a new Society necessarily set before themselves certain fundamental objects which they hope to realise, but it rarely happens that these objects remain unmodified throughout its subsequent career. No body of men, however far seeing, can determine very far in advance the lines along which future developments shall take place. For a Society, like an individual, is the complex product of numerous contributory causes, many of them of small apparent consequence, but all necessary links in the long chain of causation. Not to labour the point, it is like a ship which, while keeping an average course to the "haven where it should be," makes many small deviations from its true path, deflected by adverse winds and cross currents which try the pilot's skill to the uttermost. If The Institution is to-day what it set out to be, with such minor modifications only as circumstances have rendered necessary, it is

because its aims were practical from the first, and because those aims have been pursued with the moderation, caution, and good sense which form the surveyor's most valuable equipment.

Just a word or two as to the form in which this Paper has been cast. There are two ways only of treating a subject like this—the statistical and the purely descriptive. As for statistics, are they not all written in the books of the chronicles of the annual reports, where anyone, so disposed, may read them with the rapture they never—or hardly ever—fail to elicit! Statistics, moreover, have this strange peculiarity about them—they seem to inspire in the listener a vehement desire to do them fuller justice by deferring their consideration to the seclusion of the study—an arrangement highly flattering if one could only follow their fortunes a little further and make sure of their subsequent fate. The descriptive method, being less open to this doubtful destiny, is adopted in these pages.

No time could have been found more favourable for the establishment of an Institution, such as this, than the sixth decade of the nineteenth century. It was the historic period when the prosperity of the country was declared, on the highest authority, to be advancing by "leaps and bounds"; when the Income Tax was actually on the point of abolition by a wave of the fiscal wand. It was the time when our commercial supremacy seemed unchallengeable; when we were the chief manufacturers, the chief carriers, and, as we were pleased to believe, the political models for the world at large. The spirit of change had fallen into a deep slumber after the excitement of the Corn Law agitation. It is true that some tiresome persons, to whom no one paid much heed, were putting forward fantastic theories about public

education; but this and other questions of the kind, now so familiar to us, were mostly in the academic stage, and regarded with good-humoured indifference.

Agriculture had not entered even the penumbra of the great shadow that was so soon to fall upon it, and corn was still at a price sufficiently high to yield a reasonable profit to all concerned. Tithe rent-charge still stood well above par, and, as the result of it all, land was the premier investment, safe as the funds, without their disagreeable capacity for shrinkage, either in value or bulk. This is no fancy born of the mists of intervening years, but sober fact, resting on the solid basis of contemporary records. Take the list of private Bills in 1868 showing a total of 228 deposits, of which 67 were English Railway Bills, 7 Scottish, 16 Welsh, and 14 Irish (nearly all for new construction), in addition to 14 Harbour Dock and Port Bills, and no less than 17 Town Improvement Bills, and compare this with the List of Bills for 1910, hardly any of them concerned with new construction, but mostly with extension of time only. The contrast is depressing enough in all conscience, and reflects a sense of public insecurity which has few parallels in our annals.

The immense expropriations of property for railway purposes provided abundant work for surveyors in those exhilarating times, to say nothing of colossal undertakings like the Embankment of the Thames, the London Main Drainage, and other great improvements effected by that much maligned body the Metropolitan Board of Works, whose eminent public services counted as nothing in the balance against a few acts of malversation on the part of a little group of subordinate officials. It is terrible to think that, except for those timely turpitudes, the blossoming of that flower of probity, the modern

County Councillor, might have been deferred for a generation, and the rates might still have remained at a miserably low level. Ingrates that we are, how imperfectly we realise our mercies!

There are still many living who can remember the rush of Parliamentary work in those days—the Committee Rooms of both Houses crowded week after week with professional witnesses; the terrific combats before the Examiners for Standing Orders, over Brighton Direct, Mid-Sussex and other railways; when thousands of pounds were spent in proving or disproving portentous allegations as to errors in levels which turned out, on investigation, to be nothing more serious than unsuspected marl-pits in the inmost recesses of Sussex shaws, fatal, nevertheless, to the hopes of promoters, so strictly did we act on the letter of the Standing Orders in those exuberant days.

Looking back along the same vista of years one seems to remember an extraordinary profusion of compensation cases, to which subsequent times afford no parallel—counsel and surveyors striving after an impossible ubiquity in the endeavour to be present simultaneously in the old Law Courts, the Westminster Palace Hotel, the Sheriffs' Court Red Lion Square, the Surrey Sessions House, and the Committee Rooms at St. Stephen's.

And the Homeric conflicts of the arbitration room! when Achilles Lloyd did daily battle with Hector Hawkins—the former suavely seductive, the latter jocosely sardonic, and most dangerous when apparently least serious; both combatants brightening the sombre liturgies of the Lands Clauses Acts with many an apt quotation, and anti-quotation, being past masters in the art of rhetorical adornment.

One of Mr. Lloyd's predictions, that Tothill Street (then one of the most squalid streets in London) would, one day, become one of the handsomest thoroughfares in the Metropolis, was received by "the other side" with shouts of laughter, but now bids fair to be realised.

Those were the times when the Malthusian doctrine that population must ultimately overtake the means of subsistence was held up to scorn and contempt. Hearts that had grown heavy at the prospect were reassured on hearing that the co-operation of the "provident penguin" was no longer necessary for our food supply, for every man would soon be able, by the application of his excreta to a few perches of land, to raise enough for his own sustenance—a circular process of Arcadian simplicity. Scoffers called for nitrogen tables, which somehow or another were never forthcoming. What need of them when there was proof enough to satisfy the most incredulous in the fragrant fields of Romford where, under sewage treatment, Italian rye grass could be grown at the rate of one-eighth of an inch per hour, if a market could be found for it, which was exactly what was lacking, and if an unimaginative urban authority would only refrain from delivering storm-water and road detritus in place of the coveted treasures of its house drains, turning fair furrows into Sirbonian bogs.

The protagonist of it all was gallant William Hope, V.C., a man of most magnetic personality, and endowed with an enthusiasm that nothing could quench. If he failed it was not for want of talent and tireless endeavour, but because he was grappling with a mere chimæra.

In fact the new Pactolus refused to run; profits, as well as filtration, proved "downward and intermittent,"

and municipalities small and great, who had voluntarily, or under pressure, hastened to reap the golden harvest, found to their cost that sewage was merely a nuisance to be got rid of as cheaply as possible, and so it still remains to this day.

But perhaps enough has been said to justify the postulate of a few pages back that the year 1868 was a singularly favourable time for the nativity of this Institution.

It cannot be denied that Surveyors, as a class, were curiously late in the field of professional organisation. The Architects anticipated them by thirty years. The Engineers by half a century. Perhaps the very ambiguity of the term "Surveyor" hindered those engaged in such diverse branches of practice from discerning their kinship, and another fact which stood in the way of earlier organisation was the comparative isolation of the country practitioner before the days of railways. With improved means of communication came a great extension of business from the impetus thus given to every form of commercial activity, and the opportunity, as well as the necessity, for closer and more frequent intercourse with their brethren in the legislative centre of the Empire.

An indication of the trend of opinion towards closer co-operation appeared in an arrangement for reporting and publishing the proceedings in arbitration cases, under the title of "Select Reports of Compensa-" tion Cases." The cost of publication was shared by the ten or a dozen leading London surveyors to whom their circulation was confined. The reporter was the late Charles W. Thompson (subsequently Vacant Lands Officer to the City of London), whose notes were written in a wonderful abbreviated long-hand of his own inven-

tion. The Reports ceased about the time of The Institution's establishment in 1868.

The Surveyors' Club, founded, as has been said, one hundred and twenty years ago, may fairly be regarded as a remote progenitor, since its members were the Architects and Surveyors of the City Companies who, among other things, negotiated the purchases for public improvements such as Regent Street and the so-called New, now Euston, Road; but our true parentage dates back no further than 1834, when the Land Surveyors' Club was founded. If there is any difficulty in defining the generic term "Surveyor" there should be none as regards the specific term "Land Surveyor," supposing the club's formal definition, adopted in 1845, to hold good still. It is worthy of wider fame as a monument of anxious inclusiveness, and of a positively profligate use of capital letters.

Description of a Land Surveyor.

"One who has learned the Art of Admeasuring and "Delineating the Surface of a Country, is capable of "Dividing, Allotting and Arranging for Inclosures, Com- "mons or Waste Lands; or of Dividing or Allotting the "Interest of those holding as Joint Tenants, Co-parceners, "or Tenants in Common, versed in the knowledge of the "various Products of Agriculture, their Values and Com- "parative Advantages, either as between Landlord and "Tenant, Lord and Copyholder, Rector and Tithe payer, "and in the relative Uses, Values and Mensuration of "Standing or Fallen Timber, having at the same time a "perfect knowledge of all that appertains to the Value, "Contracts and Arrangement of Property in the character "of Land Agent."

This breathless catalogue is a little weakened by the last two words which rob it of the precision it seemed to promise, but it is none the less as good a definition as we are likely to get in these more slip-shod times. What relative Mensuration may be I do not profess to determine.

As has been said it was, metaphorically speaking, out of the loins of the Land Surveyors' Club that The Surveyors' Institution was to issue many years later. The club, it may be added, is still flourishing, but now confines itself to physical ministrations which leave no marks upon the pages of history.

Up to this point the narrative has been strictly impersonal, but a stage has now been reached when some references to individuals become necessary to its completeness. They will be as few and as brief as possible, and will be limited to persons who, with one exception, have long since passed behind the veil, but whose names will be for ever associated with the establishment of The Institution.

The question has often been asked, "Who was its real "founder?" It is impossible to decide between the parental claims of Mr. John Clutton and Mr. Edward Ryde. Simultaneous evolution of ideas is a commonplace in the world of science and invention—it is the product of a common environment. Even my lamented colleague, the late Mr. Penfold, was unable to decide the point of priority, and there the matter must rest.

But whatever may be the case in this respect no one will challenge for a moment the claim of Mr. John Clutton to the first place on the roll of founder Members. The present generation would find it hard to realise the position in the profession occupied by Mr. Clutton forty years ago. A few others have achieved eminence in

various lines of practice but no one has ever held such a dominant place as he did, whether regard be had to his vast business or to the respect, approaching veneration, with which he was regarded by his brother surveyors. There were united in him qualities rarely found in such happy combination: a great knowledge of affairs, rare organising powers, perfect simplicity of purpose, calm judgment and self-restraint, a hatred of all excesses in speech or action, and an undeviating allegiance to the dictates of sound practical common sense.

It is impossible to exaggerate the value of help like his in the infancy of The Institution. Without his commanding influence throughout the country it would have been impossible to secure the early adhesion of many provincial surveyors (acknowledged leaders in their districts), many of whom might otherwise have stood aloof for years. Such men, by joining The Institution in its early days, stamped it from the first with the national character which has been one of the notes of its success.

It may truly be said of Mr. John Clutton, in Pope's noble words:—

> A friend to truth, of soul sincere,
> In action faithful and in honour clear;
> Who broke no promise, served no private end,
> Who gained no title and who lost no friend.

There were other pioneer Members to whom it is not necessary to assign any order of priority. They shall be taken as memory presents them.

It is now thirty years since the grave closed over one of the most remarkable men that the profession has produced—I refer to Mr. Edmund James Smith, who, to talents of the highest order, added a wide and varied culture and a singular power of influencing the minds of others. A master of epigrammatic speech and calculated silences, he easily captured and held the lead wherever

he chose to do so. Those who would know better what manner of man he was should read his evidence, when a comparatively young man, printed in the First Report (1856), of the Select Committee on Ecclesiastical and Capitular Revenues, and, as a still better example of his powers, his unprecedented display of talent, thirty years later, during his seven days' exposition and defence of his agreements with the London Water Companies for the purchase of their undertakings. This was during Lord Beaconsfield's second administration—the Government which, in the vulgar jargon of the time, "came in "on beer and went out on water."

This display was thus characterised by the late Lord Grimthorpe (Mr. Beckett Denison), his principal antagonist, a man perhaps as little prone to gratuitous eulogy as any that ever existed. He said, "This gentle- "man has been studying this question for a long time. "He has gone into the geology of the question: into the "law of back dividends; into the quality of the water and "other sanitary matters; . . . . and anyone who has heard "his evidence, if he has had a Parliamentary experience "such as I have had, will, I am sure, concur with me in "saying that there has never been an exhibition of "such masterly calculation in any of these rooms for "thirty-six years." Such a eulogy, from such a man, is surely worthy of record in this Paper. But the strain was too great for him. He had been living on his capital of life, and within a few days of the conclusion of his evidence his career was abruptly closed by a trivial malady which his impaired physical powers failed to combat.

It will be remembered by some that when the gloom caused by the agricultural disasters of the early eighties began to deepen into despondency it was to Mr. Smith

that many turned for guidance; and not in vain, for he possessed in an eminent degree the gift of rapid induction, enabling him to embody in a series of striking propositions the cardinal points of the situation, and indicating at the same time the best methods of mitigating the effects of the disasters which threatened ruin to thousands.

A glance at the first List of Members will show at once how inadequately the counties north of Trent were represented on its roll. No one did more than Mr. Smith to break down the lingering tendency in those counties to regard The Institution as, in the main, a London Society. Indeed the attraction it exerted at the time seemed to follow the physical law of inverse squares.

A few other names are deserving of a foremost place in the Valhalla of founder Members—that of Sir Henry Arthur Hunt, a man of natural judicial faculty, grim fixity of purpose and rugged honesty of character, whose name as an arbitrator was synonymous with impartial good sense; or Edward Ryde, a born surveyor, full of practical knowledge, scornful of mere theory, a good speaker, with a fund of homely illustration, and a staunch friend to all within the somewhat narrow circle of those he held in personal regard.

The number is getting rapidly fewer of those who remember, in the hey-day of their powers, those twin sons of the Midlands, handsome Thomas Huskinson, with his gift of fluent, persuasive, speech, and genial Thomas Smith Woolley, full of virile strength, tempered with a spirit of tender courtesy to all his fellow-men. Looking back along the vista of years is like traversing one of the streets of tombs in the Roman Campagna that tell of vanished generations.

One or two more personal references if they will not

weary you. It is impossible to exclude from the list of pioneer Members the name of Mr. John Horatio Lloyd, the first of the line of Barrister Associates of Council, now represented by that distinguished judge and staunch friend of The Institution, the present Lord Chief Justice of England.

It would be an impertinence to attempt to appraise the powers and qualities of a man so singularly and variously gifted as Mr. Lloyd, or to weigh the value of his services during the nine years he sat upon the Council. His speech at the first Ordinary General Meeting might well be taken as the ethical charter of The Institution to which any young surveyor may with confidence refer himself on occasions when the path of probity is somewhat hidden in the tangled thickets of active business.

Just a few words with regard to one who was with us but yesterday, my old friend and colleague for thirty-six years—John Wornham Penfold—a man who in a special sense was the first and lived to be the last of the band to whom The Institution owes its inception, and whose name, not only as an official but as a chief benefactor, will survive long after his personality has faded out of remembrance.

Everyone knew him, but only a few knew him well, for no one ever wore his heart less upon his sleeve, and when he chose to be inscrutable his mind was hard to penetrate. He was curiously diffident about pressing his own views or in offering unsolicited advice, but often managed, by a significant silence, to inspire a spirit of caution and sobriety in the views of others. Though calm and passionless by nature it was never safe to take a liberty with him, or to treat him with less respect than he conceived himself entitled to.

Like most persons he had his lighter side. Behind a somewhat dry manner there lurked a fund of lambent humour, which found most frequent expression in a species of raillery which was never malicious and was always amusing, but often so subtle as to escape notice. There was never a sounder judge of men and motives, and if his habitual caution seemed at times overstrained, he was ready enough to embrace new ideas when once convinced that they were sound and reasonable.

He was an assiduous worker and a keen man of business, with an extraordinary faculty for taking pains with anything he had in hand—indeed his business was his principal though not his only recreation, for he had found time to wander in many of the by-paths of literature, often surprising one by unsuspected stores of information on quaint subjects which he had made his own. Careful to the point of parsimony in his private expenditure (for his wants were few and simple) he was profuse in his public benefactions, and has raised an enduring monument to his own memory by erecting and endowing a hospital in his native town, where he will ever be held in grateful remembrance. So much by way of preliminary to the more formal portions of this Paper.

The first practical step taken towards establishing the new Institution was to invite those known to be favourable to the project to attend a meeting to be held at the Westminster Palace Hotel, on Monday, March 23rd, 1868, now nearly forty-two years ago. At this meeting the following Resolutions were passed unanimously:—

1. That it is expedient that an Association be formed, to be called "The Institution of "Surveyors."
2. That the undermentioned gentlemen do, with

this object, form themselves, provisionally, into such an association, and take the necessary preliminary measures for organising the Institution, viz.:—

Messrs. Charles F. Adams, Virgœ Buckland, William James Beadel, Frederick James Clark, Edward Norton Clifton, John Clutton, Henry Crawter, John Bailey Denton, Robert Collier Driver, Richard Hall, Thomas Horsey, Henry Arthur Hunt, Thomas Huskinson, Jeremiah Mathews, John Oakley, Edward Ryde, Edmund James Smith, William Sturge, George Trist, and Francis Vigers.

These were the *patres conscripti* of The Institution, and it is pleasant to know that the children or grandchildren of seven of them are Members of The Institution.

One would like to linger over the names of others who were on the first Council, but space and time forbid it. On Richard Hall, tall and upright in figure and courtly in manner; on Edward Norton Clifton, weighty of speech and endowed with great business sagacity; on John Bailey Denton, leonine of aspect and emphatic of utterance—a man of real talent as an agricultural engineer; John Oakley, whose name was a synonym for integrity, whose son became President and his grandson a Member of the present Council; on William Sturge, who combined in himself the qualities of shrewd insight, caution and anxious scrupulosity, which go to make up the successful professional man.

Is it too much to say that no more able body of men ever got together in furtherance of a common purpose?

At the same Meeting of March 23rd, 1868, the following were appointed a Committee to prepare and

submit a Report to the Association: Messrs. Hunt, Clark, Denton, Vigers, Driver, Ryde, Clutton, and Trist, Mr. John Horatio Lloyd being asked to give his valuable advice and assistance on points of technical difficulty.

The draft by-laws and regulations, which were substantially identical with those of the Institution of Civil Engineers, were duly prepared and reported to a General Meeting held on the 15th June, 1868, and adopted. At this meeting the seventeen Members who formed the first Council were elected by ballot, and afterwards selected, from among themselves, a President and four Vice-Presidents. At a subsequent meeting the Council elected two Associates to their body, Mr. Frederick Joseph Bramwell and Mr. John Horatio Lloyd, Q.C., with Mr. J. W. Penfold as Honorary Secretary. The following formed the first Council:—

President:

John Clutton.

Vice-Presidents:

Henry Arthur Hunt.	Richard Hall.
Jeremiah Mathews.	Edward Norton Clifton.

Members:

William James Beadel.	John Oakley.
Frederick James Clark.	Edward Ryde.
Henry Crawter.	Edmund James Smith.
John Bailey Denton.	William Sturge.
Robert Collier Driver.	George Trist.
Thomas Huskinson.	Francis Vigers.

Associates:

John Horatio Lloyd.	Frederick Joseph Bramwell.

Honorary Secretary:

John Wornham Penfold.

Most ungrudging assistance in preparing the rules and regulations was given by that *doyen* of the Secretaries' craft, Mr. James Forrest, now living in honoured

retirement after many years of untiring and successful labours as Secretary of the great Institution on the other side of Great George Street.

The question has often been asked for what class, or classes, of surveyors was The Institution originally established. The answer is, for all classes. From the first its note was comprehension, as will sufficiently appear from the composition of the first Council.

Steps were at once taken to provide a suitable home for the new society. The three considerations governing the selection were cost, situation, and capacity for future extension. Many sites were considered, visited, and ruled out on one or other of the foregoing grounds. Ultimately the choice seemed to lie between No. 5, Adelphi Terrace, at a rental of £225 a year, and No. 12, Great George Street, at a rental of £350 a year. The accommodation at the former would have been better to begin with, and the position was undeniably more central, though more distant from the Houses of Parliament and the old Law Courts, but extension would have been difficult, if not impossible. Happily for the future of The Institution the choice ultimately fell upon No. 12, Great George Street.

Needless to say there was an inaugural dinner, held at the Cannon Street Hotel, on Wednesday, the 1st July, 1868, and attended by 100 persons, Mr. J. H. Lloyd in the chair. Among the invited guests were Mr. (afterwards Sir) William Vernon Harcourt, then in the innocent—that is to say, forensic—stage of his career and Chancellor of his own Exchequer only; handsome Mr. (afterwards Sir) Richard Garth, Q.C., on the eve of a brilliant judicial career in India, and the well-known Mr. Serjeant Parry. There were few present who had not joined, or did not subsequently join, The Institution. The company com-

prised no less than nine presidents in embryo—a fact from which the Junior Members who cannot make up their minds to attend the annual dinners may draw their own conclusions. A complete list of those present at this first festivity is printed in an appendix, and will perhaps be scanned with some interest in years to come.

The Institution was fairly launched upon its career by the autumn of 1868. The first floor of the old house, No. 12, Great George Street, was prepared and furnished in a style of imposing simplicity. The accommodation was not luxurious. It consisted of a front room occupying the whole width of the house; a smaller room behind, which in exuberance of imagination had been dubbed the library; behind the library a small landing to some former back stairs, used as a store, and behind the store a hollow cube (no one could truthfully call it a room) where sat for several sessions, placid and contemplative, the first paid Secretary, appointed in May, 1869, little imagining himself destined to hold the office for thirty-six eventful years. His whole staff was embodied in a saturnine personage (long since dead) who acted as clerk, porter, messenger and general utility man, and who addressed the wrappers for the *Transactions*, giving such time as he could spare from his private correspondence to the work of The Institution. This comprehensive individual also acted as housekeeper, which rendered his prolonged and frequent absences easy of explanation.

It was a rare event when the Secretary's leisure was encroached upon by a casual caller, beyond the peripatetic and persistent gentlemen to whom Providence has entrusted the mission of supplying their fellow-creatures, on terms, with new pens of unexampled excellence.

These details will help to show the smallness of our beginnings.

There were other visitors occasionally, conspicuous among them the venerable Edwin Chadwick, C.B., the father of modern sanitation and perhaps the most eminent public servant of the last century. At 72 years of age his mind was as clear and his interest as keen in questions bearing on social amelioration as they were in the hey-day of his reputation as Secretary of the old Board of Health. During one of his visits he suggested that we should secure a Paper on the "Economics of a "four-pound loaf," showing the distribution of the cost of it between the many persons concerned in its production, but we never managed to obtain it. Possibly he had the gift of prophetic insight, for he seemed to discern in the nascent body the germs of future success. Other early friends were that kindest and most genial of men, the late John Chalmers Morton, editor of the *Dictionary of Agriculture*, Alderman Mechi (whom the irony of fate has associated with the "magic razor "strop"), all aglow with enthusiasm over his experimental fields at Tiptree Hall, and last, but by no means least, Colonel Sir George Leach, ever eager to help us, whether as Tithe Commissioner or as first Secretary of the Board of Agriculture.

There were no Committee Meetings to disturb one's serenity, for the simple reason that there was no business which the Council could not dispose of in half the time allotted to the purpose at their Fortnightly Meetings. In short, there was a languorous ease about it all that tended greatly to the prolongation of life and to the husbanding of powers that were sometimes strained to the uttermost in the strenuous times that lay hidden in the far future.

One of the first tasks to which the Council set their hand was an attempt to collect and classify information as to the Agricultural Customs prevalent in various districts of England. The results were not very satisfactory, our constituency being too small for the purpose. Such information as was forthcoming is preserved in a file which will be found in the Library of The Institution.

The audiences at the Ordinary General Meetings differed greatly in aspect from those which now assemble in this Hall. It is now only here and there that one sees a grey head in the body of the room. Then the majority of the heads wore the livery of age, and one was fain to believe of wisdom. It was natural it should be so, for the junior member had not yet been invented. In so far as he was discernible on the planet he was sleeping peacefully in his cradle, untormented by dreams of the examinations which were to embitter his future lot in life. Such sprinkling as there was of younger men consisted of senior assistants in a few leading offices, but so few in number as to heighten rather than lower the contrast between those times than these.

During 1871 negotiations were entered into for the purchase of the interest of the superior lease of No. 12, Great George Street. This was effected for the sum of £1,950, the ground landlords agreeing to grant The Institution a new lease for a term of sixty-three years at an annual rent of £250, subject to certain building conditions.

It was thereupon determined to give notice to the tenants of the ground floor; to convert the front rooms on that floor into a good library; to pull down the stables at the back and to cover their site and the intervening open yard with a New Lecture Hall and Council

Room, the plans for which were most skilfully prepared by Mr. Penfold without cost to The Institution.

It is worthy of record that, in underpinning a wall, roughly corresponding in position to the south wall of the Chief Clerk's present room, the workmen came across the gravel bed of the stream which bounded Thorney Island on the north, and, during the same operation, unearthed, at a depth of some eighteen feet below the surface, a piece of timber in which was inserted a Jewish phylactery, written in beautiful uncial characters and in a perfect state of preservation. The timber had evidently been a doorpost of a Jew's house in the ancient sanctuary of Westminster. This curious relic is still preserved among The Institution's collections.

The fates were adverse. No sooner were the works commenced than they were suddenly stopped by a great strike in the building trade, lasting thirteen weeks. As a result the new buildings were not ready for occupation until the autumn of 1873. To meet the cost it was decided to raise the sum of £3,500 by the issue of debenture bonds bearing interest at the rate of 5 per cent. and secured by deed poll. Of this amount only £2,925 was actually raised among the Members and expended on the buildings, representing 117 debenture bonds of £25 each, all of which were redeemed in the course of the next seven years. The large bracket clock in the lower hall represents the last of them, being generously presented to The Institution for its purchase by the holder, the late Mr. Robert George Clutton.

No picture would be regarded as realistic if painted wholly in high lights, and no story would carry the stamp of verisimilitude that told of nothing but unbroken progress. As this is not a panegyric but a sober history, it has to be admitted that there was a time when the

fortunes of The Institution seemed to hang in the balance, occasioning no little disquietude in the minds of those who had cherished a belief in its future.

By the summer of 1872 there were on the roll 270 Members, Associates, and Students. Since the previous June the net gain had been 14 only. During the succeeding five years matters had improved a little, the average increment in the quinquennial period being 35 per year; but by the summer of 1877 the growth of the membership had come to an absolute standstill, the number on the books in May, 1878 being exactly equal to the number in the same month of the previous year.

The original force seemed spent, or nearly so; all who could be reached by private influence had apparently been gathered in, while the Society, as such, had not yet acquired an attractive force of its own. There is a time of the kind in the history of most Institutions if their managers had the candour to admit it.

It was at this moment that the idea of examinations first presented itself; not with the most shadowy conception of the extraordinary results which were to flow from them, but with a view to doing something towards promoting the professional efficiency of the rising generation of surveyors; no one imagined that a time would come when 800 candidates would present themselves at one time to have their qualifications tested with a view to various grades of membership.

The idea of examinations came as a shock to the notions of many of the older members, who were very insistent in the assurance that they had got on very well without them, which was undeniable as an isolated fact. Their scepticism was natural, for, at the time, such things as examinations were unknown outside the range of the so-called "liberal professions" and not in all of them.

But by 1879 the movement had gained a sufficient number of adherents to secure a cautious and guarded reference to a committee, with instructions "to consider "and report how the objects of The Institution can be "best made available for the advancement of students by "examining them in professional knowledge." The archives of The Institution are happily silent as to the authorship of these phenominally turgid terms of reference. It is only charitable to hope that they were made designedly obscure and non-committal.

No step more pregnant with future good was ever taken by the Council. It meant, to use the words of Canning in another connection, the "calling into exist- "ence of a new world to redress the balance of the old," the new world of young men to whom The Institution has come to owe so much in respect of ability and loyal co-operation in promoting the common interests of the profession.

It is of course easy to exaggerate the value of examinations as a test of professional knowledge; it is quite impossible to exaggerate their value as an attracting and binding force in the life of a society like this.

It is to the credit of The Institution that it was the first of modern professional Societies in the examination field, its example being followed later on by the Architects, the Civil Engineers, the Municipal Engineers, the Accountants, and other bodies.

It was not an easy task to arrange a general framework on which to hang a coherent scheme of examinations adapted to so many different branches of practice. The three main divisions into "land agency," "valuation" and "building," are familiar to you all. The word "chiefly" was added at the suggestion of Mr. Edmund James Smith, to indicate that there were other varieties of

practice which might not fall precisely within the scheme of classification.

No existing system of examination, academic or otherwise, was of the slightest use as a guide in the preparation of the new scheme. All existing models were carefully disregarded, the particular needs of the particular case being considered the only safe foundation on which to build. That this policy was a sound one is evidenced by the fact that the scheme has held its ground, with unimportant modifications in detail, for nearly thirty years and has earned the homage of imitation elsewhere.

There is an impression that the examinations were instituted with a special view to the application for a Charter. This is a misapprehension. The Charter was an afterthought, but it is none the less the fact that without the examinations the application for incorporation would have been made in vain. This was explicitly stated in the course of several personal interviews with the authorities which preceded the lodging of the petition.

What the examinations did was to lift The Institution out of the category of bodies working for purely professional ends into the rank of bodies working for technical efficiency in the interest of the public.

The scheme of examinations had been drafted, though not yet adopted, when it came to the knowledge of the Council that a Royal Charter had been granted to another Society representing what was practically a new vocation. It was at once resolved to make, without delay, concurrent application to a general meeting for power to put the examinations into immediate operation, and, as soon as might be, to apply for a Royal Charter of Incorporation. The following resolutions were ac-

cordingly submitted to a general meeting held on the 23rd July, 1880 :—

1. That the action of the Council in applying for a Charter of Incorporation be confirmed and approved;
2. That the scheme of professional education proposed and submitted by the Council be confirmed and approved.

Both resolutions being carried unanimously, it was decided to hold a first Preliminary Examination in the following January (1881) and a first Professional Examination two months later.

The petition was at once drafted and placed in the hands of a solicitor, with instructions to prepare a Charter and submit it to Counsel for the settlement of its terms and provisions. It was lodged with the authorities a few weeks later, and was approved by Her Majesty in Council on August 26th, 1881, very much to the astonishment of some other Societies which had hitherto enjoyed a much cherished monopoly in this respect.

One eminent and influential personage was particularly indignant, stating openly that had he known of our application he would have moved Heaven and earth to ensure its rejection. Heaven would probably have remained serenely neutral, but the terrestrial portion of his programme, if carried out, might very easily have led to our discomfiture. We were too polite to say so, but our hearts were saddened by the spectacle of so much candour allied with so little practical benevolence.

Between the years 1881 and 1884 there was an increase of nearly 600 in the membership, due in part to the added prestige of the Charter, but in a much greater

degree to the impending examinations for the associateship. The compulsory examination for the fellowship was as yet too far off to have any compelling force. That was to come later.

The society started on its new career under the title of The Surveyors' Institution, a variant from the original title, adopted for the sake of a more euphonious arrangement of designatory letters. The original title was probably the better of the two, as the effect of the change has been to associate the Charter with The Institution and not at all with the individual members, which most persons now agree would have been preferable. The old Institution handed over a very respectable estate of £11,000 to the new body and a membership roll of 742 of all classes.

Article 43 of the Charter imposed the necessity of new by-laws, to be prepared by a certain date and submitted for allowance by Her Majesty's Privy Council. The difficulty of drafting them was complicated by the necessity of making provision for a future in which there were elements of some uncertainty. This being so, it was clearly desirable to secure as much elasticity as possible (while keeping within the letter as well as the spirit of the Charter) by relegating details to regulations which could be modified without an expensive resort to the Privy Council. In this task the Council had the valuable assistance of the late Sir Francis Reilley, one of the Government draftsmen.

The introduction of a system of qualifying examinations necessitated the division of the associateship class into "Professional" and "Ordinary" Associates. Those on the border line of the two classes were offered the option of transfer to the new class. In the result 76 out of 235 Members, whose names appeared in the mixed

class in the list for June, 1882, remained Ordinary Associates. The rest became Professional Associates, with the addition of fifteen new Professional Associates representing the first product of the examinations.

There was some fear lest the postponement of the Compulsory Examinations, for three years in the case of Professional Associates, and ten years in the case of Fellows, might have a prejudicial effect upon their ultimate success. It was therefore determined to introduce them at once in a voluntary form as an alternative avenue to membership, a step fully justified by the results that followed.

An opportunity occurred about this time of purchasing the residue of the lease (expiring in 1892) of the house numbered 13A, Little George Street, adjoining The Institution on the eastern side. This was effected for the sum of £1,300, and the Council thereupon applied for and obtained a new lease of this house, to run with The Institution lease, at a ground rent of £135 per annum, undertaking to spend £500 on improvements. It was another and important step towards the gradual acquirement of the large site on which The Institution is now housed.

The Session 1886-87 was marked by the first issue of a new publication, the well-known *Professional Notes*, to which a further reference will be made in the proper place, and, still more important, by the establishment of the Provincial Committees, an act of far-sighted policy, which, next to the examinations, has done more than anything else that could be mentioned to put The Institution on a footing of permanent prosperity. There was no precedent at the time for this momentous step. There are instances in plenty where independent provincial bodies had been affiliated to a powerful central organisation

with a reservation of their local autonomy, but this was a case of voluntary decentralisation, a deliberate broadening of the base, and no step could have been more opportune in view of the new order of things which had just come into existence. The compulsory examination for the Fellowship was well within sight, and the new local machinery provided the necessary centres for emphasising the advantages of membership before the doors were closed.

The effect of the Provincial Committees has been to widen, strengthen, and consolidate The Institution in the provinces, without impairing its homogeneity in the least degree. The recent arrangement by which representatives of the Provincial Committees have been placed upon the Executive Committees is another step in the same direction, provided for in their original rules but allowed to fall into desuetude, until recently revived.

Seven Committees, representing twenty-three English counties, were first established. This number was increased in the following year to seventeen, representing forty-two English and Welsh counties.

The Session 1889-90 saw the introduction of the system of Special Certificate Examinations, affording the younger members an opportunity of obtaining diplomas of special distinction in the subjects of forestry, sanitary science, and geodetical surveying. The examinations were made as exhaustive as possible and the pass marks put unusually high in order to ensure a great degree of excellence in the candidates, and increase the significance of success.

Towards the end of the year 1889 the Council took a further step towards developing the internal resources of The Institution by authorising, under careful regulations, the holding of Meetings of Students and

Examinees for the reading and discussion of Papers, hoping in this way to afford an opening for rising talent and for the training of a new generation of writers and speakers, prepared, when the time came, to bear their part in the regular meetings of The Institution. It is sufficient to say that the results have more than justified the Council's expectations.

It followed almost of necessity from the better organisation of the country membership that those composing it should be given a more effective electoral voice. The requirement of personal attendance at the ballot was rightly felt to be a denial of voting rights, and was clearly out of harmony with the new and larger policy of local organisation. The old system of ball-ballot concentrated the power of veto in a few hands, and was sometimes productive of gross injustice to individuals. Moreover, a substitution of the system of postal voting became imperative with the influx from distant parts of the kingdom of a large number of new Members, whose position and antecedents could only be properly known to their neighbours, and who could not justly be subjected to the uncertain arbitrament of a restricted ballot.

The necessary alterations in the by-laws to give effect to the new methods of voting afforded an opportunity of obtaining powers to restore to the List names removed for reasons other than moral default, and for increasing the number of the Council from 25 to 30 in order to secure a larger representation, especially in the provinces. The general result of these changes has been to give The Institution the most democratic constitution of any existing Societies.

At this point a reference to The Institution publications will not be out of place. That universal referee

"the average man," with his confused notions of what constitutes a surveyor, would probably be a little surprised on turning over the pages of the volumes of *Transactions* to find how wide and varied are the subjects in which the profession is interested. The single word "property" is the key to its many-sidedness. It is this which brings the surveyor into more or less intimate relation with the leading interests of civilized society. If he has not yet extended this interest to the empyrean it is only because aerial easements have not yet found a place in the Statute Book, though they bid fair to do so.

The surveyor's relations to agriculture are of the most close and intimate description. He touches architecture on its practical constructive side; engineering in many of its less technical features; financial questions in connection with rent, rates, and improvement loans; political economy in its bearings on food production and the relations of capital and labour; hygiene in relation to drainage and sewage disposal; while with law he is in such hourly contact that he finds it difficult at times to discern the exact border lines between the legal profession and his own.

All this and much more is reflected in the pages of the *Transactions*.

In The Institution's earlier days there were grave fears of a shortage of Papers. There was even some talk, in what politicians call the "innermost circles," of a substitution of monthly for fortnightly meetings, with a view to husbanding our resources. No one's mind, least of all the Secretary's, had yet been educated up to an adequate conception of the wide field for literary treatment presented by a many-sided profession. With an ampler knowledge of the constituency, with the

growth of that constituency, and with a larger outlook upon the surveyor's relations to questions of public interest all anxiety on this point subsided—it is to be hoped for ever.

With the dawn of what is known as the "era of "social legislation" that followed upon the lotus-eating days of Lord Palmerston, novel theories as to the functions of the State in relation to the operation of economic laws began to show their heads, most conspicuously of all in connection with agricultural tenancies and questions of public hygiene. The Irish Land Act of 1870 marked the opening of the new legislation era, followed by the Thames Navigation Act of 1870, with its bearings on river pollution, the Public Health Act, 1875, the Agricultural Holdings Acts of 1875 and 1883, and projects of legislation like the Inclosure Law Amendment Bill of 1871, the Railway and Local Government Bills of 1872, and the Landlord and Tenant Bill of Mr. James Howard and Mr. Clare Sewell Read, all fruitful of subject-matter for papers and discussion at our meetings. The stream of cognate legislation, attempted or effected, has since become a torrent, and is not likely to grow smaller in the years to come. The first Agricultural Holdings Act was vehemently resented by some of the chief landowners; among them (perhaps there are few living persons who can recall the fact) by Lord Salisbury, who, in resisting its passage through the House of Lords, actually proposed to invest The Institution with a species of joint jurisdiction with the County Courts over claims arising under the Act. The proposal was possibly made for tactical purposes only, but there was a sufficient air of seriousness about it to lead to a private correspondence with its author as to The Institution's administrative capabilities.

On one occasion, and one only, has The Institution lent itself to a challenge to single combat. The champions, the late Mr. Edmund James Smith and the late Mr. W. Fowler, M.P., were about equally matched in point of dialectical skill. Mr. Smith was supposed to represent the cause of economic righteousness; Mr. Fowler the new doctrine of public rapine. The *casus belli* was an article by Mr. Fowler in the Papers of the Cobden Club, dealing with the land question generally, and the Ecclesiastical Commissioners particularly, in their quality as landowners. This Paper excited the indignation of Mr. Smith, who engaged to refute Mr. Fowler's economic heresies in a brochure entitled "Land," which may still be read with profit in the pages of the *Transactions*. The lists were opened in the Lecture Hall of the Institution of Civil Engineers, our own being judged too small for the audience expected. Mr. Fowler, who had been furnished in advance with a copy of his antagonist's cartel of defence, appeared in the arena prepared for battle, and the spectators looked for a bloody combat, but nothing much came of it. The mildness of the offender's oral defence was in strange contrast to the vigour of his printed polemic, and the affair fizzled out after four full nights' debate, the report of which occupied 107 pages of the *Transactions*. It was a reproduction of the historical duel. "Lord Chatham, with "his good sword drawn, stood waiting for Sir Richard "Strahan. Sir Richard, longing to be at 'em, stood "waiting for the Earl of Chatham."

Just a word or two as to the *Professional Notes*. They were designed as a means of gathering up and utilising communications too short in their nature or treatment for inclusion in the *Transactions*. It was intended to publish at long and irregular intervals, but

as the project took shape it was seen that the scope of the publication might be advantageously extended and made more useful by the addition of a section for communications from Members unable to attend the meetings; another section devoted to queries and replies, a fourth section to brief abstracts of law cases, and a fifth to general information and statistics. A specimen number on these lines was prepared and approved, and is perhaps still preserved among the archives of The Institution.

The "average man" would find additional cause for surprise in the extraordinary variety of the subjects dealt with in the *Professional Notes.*

The formation of a good library has been a cherished object from The Institution's earliest days. Forty years ago the aspiration was represented by about 150 volumes, displayed to the best advantage in two small bookcases which still exist, though now devoted to ignoble uses. It would be easy, even at this distant time, to replace every book in its original position on the original shelves, so tenaciously do early impressions cling to one's memory.

The Secretary, who was also easily Librarian, had no temptation to squander his leisure in consulting the contents. They were inexpressibly dry and unexciting. "Bayldon on Rents and Tillages" can hardly be described as thrilling, and one soon had enough of Tusser's "Five "Hundred Points of Good Husbandry," nor could the "Chronicles of a Clay Farm" elicit more than a transient emotion. Yet these were the gems of the collection, though Ure's "Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and "Mines," and a fragmentary copy of Dallaway's "Sussex," ran them hard for the first place in one's favour. There were a few odd copies of the "Builder," beginning nowhere and ending nowhere, like the ruins

of a Roman aqueduct; the fossil remains of an extinct publication called the "Surveyor, Engineer, and Architect"; and several copies of Willich's Tables, none of them more than ten years old. Every additional volume that came in was hailed like the birth of a son and heir.

Such were the beginnings of our present splendid collections. As time went on the Council acquired by purchase a few of the less expensive county histories. The more costly were quite beyond our reach, but this consideration did not restrain us from publishing a rather portentous list of "Library desiderata" which we cast upon the waters to return in the form of literary bread after many days. For it so happened that a member of the then reputable, now execrated, class of Dukes, happened to see a copy of our list lying on his agent's table, and at once directed him to supply our wants out of the overflowing shelves of Woburn. Then we deeply lamented our ill-judged moderation in drawing up such a meagre list and sought to repair the error by issuing a much fuller one, but no more dukes rose to our innocent bait, though dangled in all likely places, we having no false pride about us in those primitive days. Our benefactor was Hastings, 9th Duke of Bedford, and his gift laid the foundation of our magnificent Topographical collection, the *lacunæ* in which are now quite few and unimportant. Among the ducal gifts was a beautiful copy of Atkyns' "Gloucester," ruthlessly cut down by the hand of an inexperienced bookbinder, who deserves the execration of all true bibliophiles.

Probably few of the Members know what treasures the library contains. To mention a few of them. A unique copy of the folio edition of Blomefield's monumental "History of Norfolk," perhaps one of the only complete copies in existence, for it comprises the extra

leaves mentioned in Lowndes; a magnificent copy of "Nichols' Leicestershire," acquired at a cost of £200; the rare third volume of Dallaway's "Sussex," one of the few copies issued before the whole edition was destroyed in Nichols' fire; an exceptionally fine copy of "Hasted's Kent," subscribed for and presented by the Members in that county; and, perhaps most interesting of all, Arthur Young's own copy of his "Tour in Ireland," containing his original unpublished sketches designed for the illustration of the work.

Another of Arthur Young's works in the Library, his "Tour in France," contains a passage so remarkable that the temptation to quote it is irresistible. Bear in mind that it was written in the year 1788, the year before the outbreak of the French Revolution. He says:—

"In the evening to M. Lomond, a very ingenious and "inventive mechanic . . . . In electricity he has made "a remarkable discovery: you write two or three words "on a paper, he takes it with him into a room and turns "a machine enclosed in a cylindrical case, at the top of "which is an electrometer—a small fine pith ball—a "wire connects with a similar cylinder and electrometer "in a distant apartment and his wife, by remarking "the corresponding motions of the ball, writes down the "words they indicate, from which it appears he has "formed an alphabet of motions. As the length of the "wire makes no difference, a correspondence might be "carried on at any distance, within and without a "besieged town for instance, or for a purpose much "more worthy, between two lovers prohibited or pre-"vented from any better connection." Young little realised that he was looking at the first germ of an invention that 50 years later was to revolutionise the world and supply it with a new and much more

expeditious way of propagating information of imperfect authenticity.

There is also a noble copy of "Bracton de legibus et "consuetudinibus Angliæ," published in 1569, a magnificent specimen of the typographer's art. For beauty of letter-face, regularity of alignment, and perfection of register, it would be hard to match in a modern printing office. There is also a quarto edition of Selden on "Tithes." The book is of small intrinsic value, but is interesting from an inscription on the fly-leaf showing that it was once the property of Richard Wallop, who, readers of Macaulay will remember, was counsel with Pollexfen for the defence of Baxter, the author of "The Saints' Rest," before the infamous Jeffreys, in James the Second's time. Also a copy of the "History "of Framlingham," which came from the Fonthill sale, containing some curious pencil annotations in the handwriting of Beckford, the author of "Vathek." Those curious in matters of legal lore can spend a profitable hour or two in the study of Cowel's "Interpreter," which was proscribed and burnt by the hangman on account of certain definitions of the powers of kings, which, we are assured in the deed of proscription "be "Gods upon Earth"; or, if interested in the medical art, in Gervase Markham's "English Housewife," A.D. 1660, where among other prescriptions one can find a cure for jaundice. It is very simple and easily prepared. "For "yellow jaundice, which is desperate and almost past "cure, take sheep's dung newly made, and put it into a "cup of beer or ale, and close the cup fast and let it "stand all night, and in the morning take a draught of "the clearest of the drink and give it to the sick party." It is to be hoped that this delectable potion had the desired effect.

The Library also contains a fine black-letter copy of Fitzherbert's quaint treatise on "Surveying," wrongly ascribed, according to Sir Ernest Clarke, to Sir Anthony Fitzherbert instead of the real author, his brother John, and Captain John Graunt's observations on the "Bills of "Mortality" (the captain was in reality the Sir William Petty of "Pepys' Diary"), which gives a delightful enumeration of the diseases of Londoners, of whom it appears that, in 1632, 78 were "jaw-fallen" (probably defeated politicians), 13 "planet-struck," 98 victims to "rising of the lights," and, most terrible of all, that 9 "burst," presumably victims of City hospitalities. There are many other books one would like to mention, but it will be better to deal with them in a separate Paper, if the Members would care to have it.

The Library which started with such small beginnings now comprises 10,000 volumes and is still growing apace. Perhaps its principal deficiencies consist in such subjects as general history, economics and statistics, archæology, natural history and technology. Science, though fairly represented, might very well occupy a larger space. As for books on agriculture and works of reference, their name is legion, and they are capable of indefinite multiplication.

It only remains to add that the utility of the Library has been greatly increased by the establishment of a loan section, which is much appreciated, though necessarily limited to text-books and works of professional utility.

But to revert to matters more general. The imminence of the compulsory Examination for the Fellowship led to a great acceleration in the rate of admissions to the class between January, 1890, and August, 1892, many hundreds of surveyors hastening to enter by the still open door.

Without the aid of the Provincial Committees it would have been wellnigh impossible to deal adequately with the qualifications of such a swarm of applicants. The number of Fellows actually quintupled in the ten years 1882-92, while the total roll had grown during the same period from 535 to close upon 2,000.

Towards the end of the ten years which preceded the closing of the Fellowship and the advent of the compulsory Examination for the class, there was some anxiety as to the effect of the change upon the future growth of the membership, and even on its maintenance at the existing numerical level.

All doubts, however, were set at rest when it was found that the annual average loss by death and cesser of membership was only 40 per year, on the basis of a membership of 2,000 as against an average annual increase of 20 per cent. in the number of successful examinees. It was clear that the future could be contemplated with composure.

The Session 1891-92 witnessed the introduction of the Direct Fellowship Examination for candidates of mature years who had neglected to join The Institution under the old practice qualification. A good many candidates have availed themselves of this examination, but the arrangement is in its nature temporary.

In 1894 the first serious steps were taken to organise a Forestry Collection on a scientific basis. It has taken many years to make it really representative of British, to say nothing of Colonial Forestry, but the ideal of its promoters seems to be on the point of realisation.

Among the changes which marked the next two or three years there are some which are worthy of mention. Perhaps the most important was the restriction of the tenure of the Presidential Chair to a single year. The

change has relieved a certain amount of congestion in the body of the Council, but there are some who hold that it has not been beneficial on the whole.

The election, *en bloc*, under the dispensary power, of the members of the Irish Land Agents' Association, some 200 in number, also belongs to this period. It not only strengthened the representation of The Institution in that country, but afforded a much-desired opportunity of establishing Irish Examinations as the condition of absorption of the existing Members of the Association.

During the summer and autumn of 1895 the first steps were taken for the re-housing of The Institution in larger and more commodious premises. By arrangement with the ground landlords the unexpired leases of Nos. 12 and 13A, Great George Street were surrendered and a new lease of them taken for a term of 999 years, together with a lease for the same period of the additional house, No. 13, Great George Street and Nos. 3 and 4, Little George Street, at a total ground rent of £1,000 a year. The whole site, thus acquired, comprised an area of 6,700 superficial feet. The archway, much beloved of loafers, which spanned the northern end of Little George Street, was a most unsightly link between the houses on the two sides of the street. Half the superstructure, of two stories, appertained to No. 13, the other half on the eastern side to No. 16, the party structure between the two being a lath and plaster partition over the centre of the arch. Had we decided to pull down our half of the archway a very pretty question might have arisen under the law of support. As it happened, our friendly neighbours agreed to surrender their rights for a nominal sum, and it became possible to secure an uninterrupted return frontage for any new building that might be decided on. Steps were at once

taken for the erection of the new building. A number of leading architects—including two Members of The Institution—were invited to send in competitive designs. The choice ultimately fell on that submitted by Mr. Alfred Waterhouse, R.A. It proved to be the last competition in which he was engaged in the course of a long and laborious life.

The rebuilding involved the migration of The Institution in June, 1896, to temporary premises in Savoy Street, Strand, which it was destined to occupy for a much longer period than was originally contemplated. As a matter of fact the new building was not ready until May, 1899.

The whole cost, including architects' charges, extras, purchase of archway and purchase of the lease (£750) of No. 4, Little George Street, amounted to £34,198, and was defrayed out of accumulated funds, without resort to borrowing in any form. By acquiring the head lease of No. 11, Great George Street the Council have made provision, *Georgio volente*, for any possible future needs in the way of extension when the under-leases fall in.

The arbitration business which has done so much to make The Institution known throughout the country and has at times contributed considerably to its finances, began with a small reference before the late Mr. C. J. Shoppee (kindest and most genial of men) in the first floor front room of the original house. The business has grown with our growth—though at present in the trough of the wave—and forms an excellent barometer of the state of public enterprise. The Institution has now become the principal arbitration centre for cases heard in London.

Many lucrative hours were spent by counsel and

witnesses in the house removed to make room for the present building.

Among the former stand conspicuous in one's memory the present Lord Chief Justice, Lord Alverstone, staunchest of friends to The Institution, the massive figure of Sir John Holker, Alfred Thesiger, model of an English gentleman, who was snatched away in the very dawn of a great judicial career, Samuel Pope, with his stately and impressive diction, and that meteoric personage, Mr. Benjamin, Q.C., ex-Attorney-General of the Confederate States, and one of the inspiring spirits of the great war, who suddenly swam into our legal firmament and built up a large practice before he died. There are some who will not need to be reminded of his strange appearances in the unfamiliar field of compensation practice.

With the exception of Lord Alverstone (who was only on the threshold of practice) our old and tried friend Judge Philbrick is probably one of the last, if not the very last, of the little band of Junior Counsel who helped to reap the golden harvest. Poor Ledgard's career sank in gloom, and Horatio Lloyd found an early grave just when his prospects looked the brightest.

Before passing on to other subjects there is no harm in mentioning, at this distance of time, that by the merest chance the old Lecture Hall escaped destruction by fire on the very night of a conversazione held to celebrate its inauguration. It was filled at the time with works of art valued at £30,000. The fire was rapidly extinguished by the exertions of the staff under the direction of Mr. E. N. Clifton, who first discovered it. As may be imagined, the incident was a disturbing prelude to the function which commenced an hour later, but we buried the secret in our bosoms

New and more commodious premises inspired new and more ambitious developments. In the early part of 1897 the Council, acting on the advice of a special committee, decided to institute Country Meetings to be held in annual rotation at the great provincial centres; also official receptions in London.

Provincial Meetings of the kind have been held in successive years at Manchester, Bristol, Leeds, Southampton, Cambridge, Dublin, Newcastle, Exeter, Birmingham, Glasgow, Dover, and Cardiff, and have done much to increase the prestige of The Institution in all parts of the United Kingdom.

The London receptions at the Natural History Museum, the Guildhall, and the Botanical Gardens have been very popular and have helped to place The Institution *en rapport* with the general world of science, literature, and art.

During the Session 1898-99 steps were taken towards increasing the membership in Scotland, where The Institution was previously very inadequately represented. A large number of new members were admitted under the dispensary power conferred by the Charter, on the express condition that a system of compulsory examinations, similar to those in Ireland, should at once be introduced in North Britain.

During the next Session steps were taken for the establishment of a Benevolent Association, ancillary to but independent of The Institution. To protect it from bureaucratic invasions it was decided to register the Association under the Joint Stock Companies Acts, which effectually removes it from the purview of future Charity Commissioners. The Association has already done untold good, and deserves a wider measure of support than it has hitherto received.

In November, 1901, serious questions were raised in a memorial from the Members urging the adoption of some title more distinctive of Membership than the designating letters F.S.I. and P.A.S.I., and pressing at the same time for the introduction of more effective disciplinary machinery for checking certain irregularities which tended to bring the profession into discredit with the public. It was suggested that the first of these objects might be achieved by authorising the use of the words "Chartered Surveyor," as an alternative to the designating letters. The result of a postal vote on the question at issue showed a large preponderance of opinion in favour of the proposal, which was thereupon submitted to and approved by a general meeting convened for the purpose. For reasons which it would be unbecoming to discuss in this Paper the new title has not commended itself for general adoption. Perhaps had the senior Members taken more kindly to it at the first the use of the words Chartered Surveyor would by now have been in general use.

Whichever title was the better its protection from unauthorised use is of first importance. It is of course impossible to establish proprietary rights in the letters of the alphabet, unless fraudulent intent can be proved to the satisfaction of the Courts. This fact is at once the weakness of the older title and the strength of the newer one. The letters "F.S.I." may mean anything or nothing, whereas the term "Chartered Surveyor" can mean but one thing, and its usurpation by non-members carries the taint of fraud on the face of it. Five or six years ago an attempt was made, in concert with other chartered bodies to secure definite legal protection against frauds of the kind by means of a private Bill, to be introduced with the approval of the Government.

Things looked promising for a time, but in the result the old stalking horse, "restraint of trade," was trotted out by the authorities, and the whole matter got pigeon-holed somewhere in the official limbo of Whitehall.

The second point raised in the memorial from the Members already referred to was met by certain changes in the by-laws, investing the Council with larger and more summary disciplinary power. Happily the occasions calling for their exercise have been rare and are becoming rarer. After all is said and done in this direction, the fact remains that the elevation of the tone of the profession as a whole is a better restraining influence on the conduct of individuals than any domestic legislation, however drastic, and any official penalties however condign.

The earliest indication that The Institution had reached a position of some public prominence was supplied by the curious proposal of the late Lord Salisbury in connection with the Agricultural Holdings Act, to which allusion has already been made. The next consisted in its appointment as one of the two professional bodies empowered to report to the Secretary of State upon any new by-laws framed by the Metropolitan Board of Works under the Metropolis Management and Building Acts Amendment Act, 1878. Later still came its recognition in relation to the Tribunal of Appeal under the London Building Acts, and last and most significant of all its proposed functions in connection with the valuation of the whole country as foreshadowed in the late Budget proposals.

No other body has taken a more prominent part in shaping and modifying proposals for the amendment of the London Building Acts. The Institution has been prodigal of its money, and its Members of their unselfish

services, in endeavours to protect the public against oppressive legislation of this description, and the instances are many in which their views have prevailed.

The occasions also are numerous in which it has sought, by petition to Parliament, and by evidence before Royal Commissions and Committees of both Houses, to make its voice heard in the interest of individual rights which, until recent years, were regarded as inherent in our national polity, but are now becoming the subjects of systematic invasion. The Institution has no more honourable record than its services in these public capacities, from which no advantage can accrue to its Members.

A good deal has been said in this Paper about the examinations from an historic point of view. A good deal might also be said about them from other points of view. For instance, nothing is more noticeable than the fact that the classes who have hitherto looked, almost exclusively, to the so-called liberal professions, are pressing in increasing numbers into the ranks of surveyors. Every examination list for some years past has contained the names of candidates from the great public schools, the sons of well-to-do and, in many instances, of aristocratic parents. There are good candidates among them, but as a class they are markedly inferior in point of general knowledge and intelligence to the candidates who have had what are regarded as fewer educational advantages. They offer few or no signs that their powers of observation have been awakened or their interest aroused in things pertaining to the world of thought and action. As a rule they know nothing about public affairs, about the institutions of their country or the practical machinery of life—knowledge that a young

man of 19 or 20 might be expected to possess. Their education, in short, seems in far too large a number of cases to be lacking in precisely those features which are an important part of the equipment of a young surveyor. The reason for it is not far to seek. The public schools —especially the great day-schools—inflict on their pupils an immoderate amount of preparation for the next day's work, practically cutting them off in this way from the society of their elders, and, except in holiday times, from the life of the home. It is an evil system which eliminates a valuable element from the boy's life, and tends little or nothing to the education of his understanding. *Liberavi animam meam.*

The *viva voce* Examination in Division I. was of real value as a test of general knowledge and intelligence apart from mere bookwork. If re-introduced its utility would be greatly increased if it were based upon a definite syllabus of ample range, but strictly confined to practical subjects. In its former form it occupied much too subordinate a place in the examination, and counted for far too little in the allocation of marks. Moreover, the candidates were left without guidance for their reading, and, as a natural consequence, there was a noticeable absence of preparation and a marked tendency to trust to the chapter of accidents. It is hoped that this short digression into the fields of policy will not be resented. So much for the more serious side of my task.

There has been a strong temptation in the course of this narrative to enliven it here and there with reminiscences of a lighter kind than are strictly appropriate to the sedate pages of the *Transactions*. Perhaps a few will be permitted as a set-off to many dull pages. Should the Secretary consider them out of place he can exclude them from the published report.

Some will remember the general meeting convened for the formal affixing of the common seal to a loyal and dutiful address to Her late Majesty, Queen Victoria, on the occasion of her first Jubilee. The meeting was well attended, and great interest was evinced in the proceedings. The Address, handsomely illuminated and engrossed on vellum, was read, approved, and ordered to be sealed. A sufficient pool of melted wax was poured upon the bottom of the document, and a Member of the Council, of great weight, officially and physically, was asked to impress the die, which he did to such effect that the wax achieved incorporation on its own account with the French-polished table. In the effort to detach the document a large hole was torn in the parchment, and the proceedings ended in a complete fiasco.

Another reminiscence. A former President of The Institution, who shall be nameless, a man of shrewd wit and much caustic humour, happened, in the course of a discussion, to make a somewhat contemptuous but perfectly good-natured reference to the hazel rods of the water-finder's craft. A post or two later came a letter addressed to him by a country Member rebuking his levity in terms of unmeasured abuse. The President's reply was delightful: "Dear Sir, I yield to no one in "my reverence for hazel rods, and firmly believe that "if properly applied in youth they prove valuable aids "to wisdom in maturer years."

Many years ago one of the examination candidates became partly demented as he sat at his desk. His work was excellent, but every paper handed in was endorsed "Hymn No. 45, Andante." He did not reappear after the third day's sitting, but had he done so his work was of such a quality that he would probably have passed.

There was no man harder to place at a verbal

disadvantage than the late Sir Frederick Bramwell, but on one occasion he met his match. Most of you remember the large sky-light in the roof of the old Lecture Hall and the sun-blinds beneath it which could be drawn across by horizontal wires. These wires happened to catch Sir Frederick's eye as he entered the hall, and jumping to the conclusion, in his impetuous way, that they were intended to improve the acoustic properties of the room, he exclaimed, "Quite wrong, "quite wrong, ought to be much lower." The reply fairly disconcerted him. "The wires are not for the "deaf, but for the blind."

The same sky-light was once the cause of a scene of wild dismay, during an arbitration case. A thunderstorm was raging, and the Porter, on account of the heavy rain, suddenly closed the glass louvres with a loud crash. The act happening to coincide with a particularly vivid flash of lightning, Counsel and witnesses leapt to their feet in the utmost terror, believing the building had been struck by a thunderbolt. It was some minutes before their composure was restored.

The Institution has had its experiences of the harmless cranks who do so much to relieve the tedium of life. Many years ago we were pestered with letters from an individual who denied the sphericity of the earth, and besought us to abandon such futilities as land management and valuation, and devote ourselves to the proof of his theory—the only thing really worth living for. As responsible for our little share in the joint-stock concern called human sanity we pointed out that ships had been sailing the ocean for ages without coming to the edge of the world. He was not to be convinced. Let us hope that he found it "flat," as it certainly was "stale and "unprofitable."

In the seventies a foreign gentleman of large private means, used to haunt the offices of Westminster. He had the misfortune to be the father of a Heaven-born genius—one of the most expensive luxuries in which a parent can indulge. The prodigy, a sallow, perky and uninteresting youth of some twelve summers, generally accompanied his father, listening to his encomiums of his talent with undisguised delight. He had invented a new form of steam engine which did double the usual work with half the usual fuel. This excellent device could be seen in a shed at Paddington, and had cost hundreds of pounds to build. Nothing would satisfy the youthful inventor but a personal visit. A single glance was sufficient to show that he had unconsciously re-invented Newcomen's open cylinder engine. The father was indignant at the suggestion, and would not hear a word in disparagement, and so the interview ended. Years later the writer was accosted by a man in the last stage of destitution. He proved to be the father of the youthful prodigy. His whole fortune had been expended in endeavouring to convince a sceptical world of the merits of his son's invention. The poor fellow begged the price of a meal, and having got it passed into oblivion.

We have had several geniuses up for examination—it is undeniable because we have it on the assurance of their parents—but the examiners, working on a lower plane, fail to observe them or, still more reprehensibly, muddle up the names and marks in preparing the lists of successes—this on the same authority.

But you must be weary of these resurrections from the graveyard of time.

The story has now reached a point when it must be continued by another hand than mine. Is it too much to claim for it that it is a record of ordered progress

hard to match in the history of professional Societies. Nothing has been done that has not stood the test of time. No step once taken has ever been retraced. There have been no divided counsels on your governing body, no jealousies or rivalries to distract or stultify its policies. The future was said by the ancients to rest upon the knees of the gods: it is more reasonable to believe that, so far as this Institution is concerned, it rests, as it has rested in the past, on the knees of those *dii inferiores,* those lower divinities, the Surveyors of England, if they remain true to the sound traditions which have made the Society what it is to-day.

So long as private property is suffered to exist so long will the surveyor remain its chief acolyte. When its doom is decreed he will still be there to assist in its obsequies, and will no doubt find it a long and profitable business.

Mr. Arthur Vernon (Past President) said he had the greatest pleasure in proposing that the best thanks of the Meeting be given to Mr. Rogers for his excellent Paper. Their first feeling was one of warm welcome to their late Secretary on his reappearance amongst them, opposite so many old friends, surrounded by his colleagues, and confronted by his excellent presentment on the walls of The Institution. But they were still more gratified to see that, whether or not as Secretary he had enjoyed that "languorous ease," of which he spoke, he certainly from his appearance was enjoying a state of "languorous ease" in his retirement, and they could congratulate him on his robust appearance, on his restoration to health, and upon his having apparently obtained an unlimited lease for a green old age.

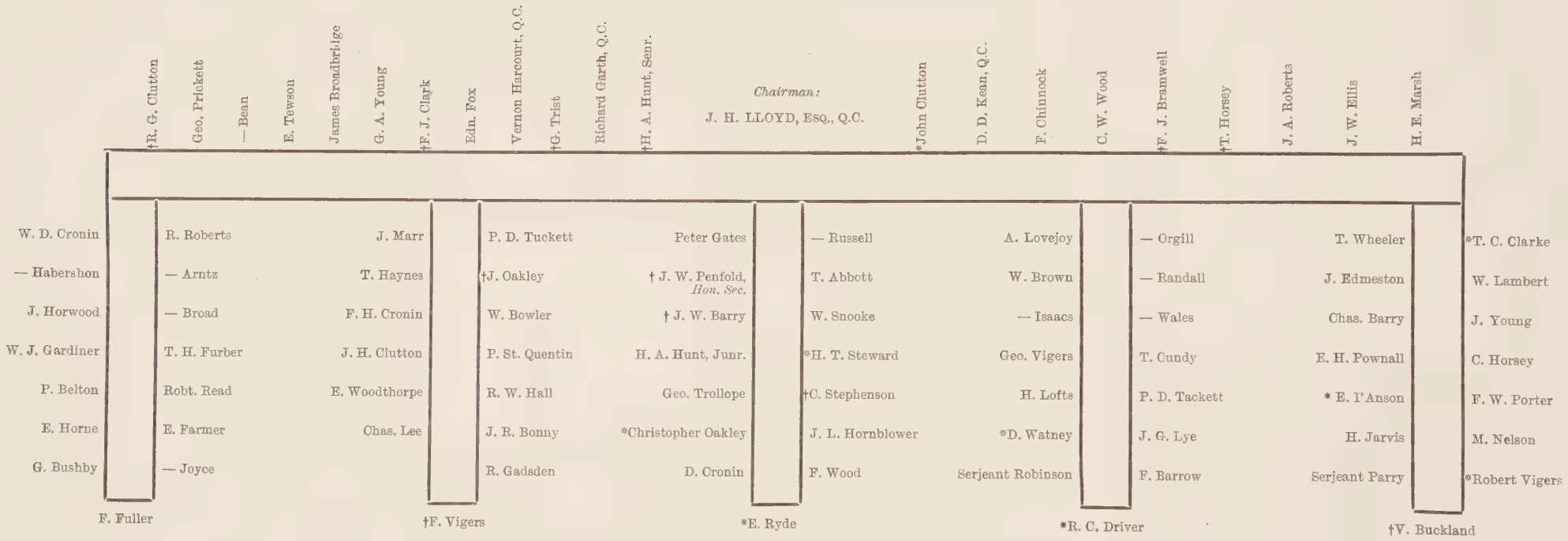
It was rather startling on looking back to find that

Table Plan.

INAUGURAL DINNER OF THE INSTITUTION

HELD AT THE CANNON STREET HOTEL,

ON WEDNESDAY, JULY 1st, 1868.



* Served the office of President.

† Served as Members of Council.

Mr. Rogers had assisted no less than twenty Presidents; he had helped to guide, and, if he might say so without offence to them, in many cases to control the Councils of The Institution, and throughout that long period of over thirty-six years during which The Institution was being brought to its present great position from comparatively small beginnings, he had given the literary efforts of a well-trained mind, the earnest devotion of a single-hearted zeal, the faithful courage of his opinions, and his ready help to all his colleagues on the Council.

In listening to the Paper one could not help feeling how valuable a man Mr. Rogers was and how largely their Institution was indebted to him for devoting practically a lifetime to its building up. Man, according to Shakespeare, played many parts, and he had had to play many parts. He was a man who succeeded in concealing any trait of character opposed to modesty; indeed he appeared to them as a modest man, but he (the speaker) had been told how often to a foolish candidate, and sometimes to (should he say) an indiscreet Member, he had played the bold man and had given advice that had not always been palatable though, he thought and believed, it had always been useful.

Mr. Rogers was identified with the construction and building up of The Institution, and however long his life was spared, that would always be a matter which he would be able to look back to with the greatest pride and pleasure. He had seen it develop, and he and those who worked with him had helped boldly, vigorously, and successfully, to correct the mistakes which always occurred in the building up of any great society. Like Carnegie, whose earliest success was achieved on borrowed capital, The Institution had begun life by borrowing, but at that moment, thanks to its success

and to the numbers of its Members, it was able to pay its way, and was prepared for every difficulty, and even to help its Members by assisting them at the universities, and by giving them, not as a loan but as a reward for special merit, the means for securing the highest places in the profession.

Mr. Rogers did not say much about the future; there was nothing in his Paper in the way of prophesy, suggestion, or direction. Probably the omission was intentional; it might be that he had taken special care not to commit himself. But he said one thing which he thought might be somewhat severely criticised if it were left without explanation, that was as to the members of public schools who came into their ranks. Any error in their training would doubtless be removed, for the public schools were one of their best sources of supply, and he thought they wanted Mr. Rogers' own explanation before they interpreted his words too literally. He gathered from the Paper that after all in his opinion it was not the people who wrote "Andante" on their paper and who lapsed from common sense who made the great surveyors, but that the successful future would be the lot of the surveyor of common sense who was willing to devote himself to his work, and who, as Lord Palmerston said, possessed that greatest of all genius, the capacity for mastering trifles. Mr. Rogers had also given encouragement to the governing body. He had said that self-devotion, perseverance, and careful building up had always distinguished their governors, and they had always shown a hearty and generous co-operation for the good of The Institution; and on those principles and on those lines The Institution was destined to become greater in the future than it had been in the past.

He thanked Mr. Rogers for the touches of humour which had enlivened the Paper, and he thought their best thanks were due to him personally for those reminiscences, and accordingly he begged to move that the thanks of the Meeting be given to Mr. Rogers for his Paper.

Mr. J. H. SABIN (Fellow) said it was with very great pleasure he seconded the proposal that they should give their hearty thanks to Mr. Rogers for his most interesting Paper—a Paper which he could assure them would be even more interesting when they read it again in its complete form. Mr. Rogers, he ventured to say, was the only possible historian of The Institution and his Paper was the only possible history that could have been written. When he left them he left them on a wave of prosperity and they had to see that that prosperity was maintained in the future, and that no one would be called upon to write the decline and fall of The Institution.

He could not forget that some four or five years ago Mr. Rogers announced in almost halting phrases that on account of declining years he desired to be relieved of the burden of office at an early date if the Council would permit it. Like a wise man he had since embraced mother earth, he had gone "back to the "land," and they saw the result in the broad and happy face which he had shown them that night.

The last thing Mr. Rogers would desire would be that they should pass upon him unstinted personal praise. The true enthusiast forgot himself in his cause, and he believed that from the very first he had determined to embody himself with The Surveyors' Institu-

tion, and that a slur on Mr. Rogers would have been much more easily forgiven than any indignity passed upon "Great George Street" or its Secretary. He believed that was what was aimed at when the founders of The Institution made their selection, believing that in him they had found a man who would be enthusiastic.

Mr. Vernon had referred to the absolute unanimity with which Mr. Rogers worked with the Council. Mr. Vernon in his official capacity had had the advantage of a closer knowledge of Mr. Rogers than he had, but he had seen a number of gentlemen pass from the lowest name on the Council list to the Chair, and into retirement, and he did not remember on a single occasion any observed difference of opinion or any breach of amiability between the Secretary and the Members of the Council. He would not say how much of that was due to the tact of the Secretary or how much to the urbanity and moderation of the Council, but he thought it was a point which might well be remarked, and which, if he was not misinformed, was not always to be found in the history of professional societies. That so long a friendship should have been so amicably conducted said much for both parties.

With regard to The Institution itself, he believed that the secret of the success, and the calm but constant and persistent advance in its history, from one stage of public confidence to another, was to be found in the high ideals which marked the men who founded it. Those ideals, if he studied them aright, took shape in the membership, in the constitution of the Society, and in its management. Frankly he was not disposed to think very much of the young man who had not read, and carefully read, the first four or five volumes of the *Transactions* of The Institution; every

Member should possess the complete series if he wanted to be an informed surveyor, but the first two or three volumes should be on the shelf of every young man who entered The Institution. The weighty words of the first President, John Clutton, and the contributions of such men as William Sturge, and the wonderfully sound advice given by John Horatio Lloyd, should be the foundation of a surveyor's education. It was not easy to revive "the manner that persuaded more than "the words that convinced" of the men who had passed away; but the words and the advice that were thickly strewn in the *Transactions* (the true archives of The Institution) and the sage words of such men as Edward Ryde, Smith Woolley, and Chatfeild Clarke, as well as of less familiar names, such as James Martin and Jeremiah and William Mathews, were words to be remembered. In the last-named he ventured to say he had mentioned the name of one who combined a true philosophy with a wonderful amount of common sense practice in the work of the surveyor; and if he passed lightly over the name of Edmund James Smith it was not because he had a light idea of the influence that he had had both in the profession and upon those who came in contact with him, but rather lest he should be too partial to his old master.

But if the ideal were high in the estimation of the founders as regards the individual, it was also wide in the estimation of the Members of The Institution. They sought to include all, and if they were not successful at first it was not from any fault on their part or because of any obstacle which they placed in the way. They had left the door open as wide as possible and even at the present time it was a little bit ajar, so that the belated might understand that the bolts were not

absolutely shot but that they might get in, though the way was narrow and the gate small.

The Institution had been most fortunate in their late Hon. Secretary a man whom one could not think of without feelings of affection and regret for his loss ; and finally they had had an ideal Secretary in the gentleman who had read the Paper that night. From the first time, when to his great surprise he found himself on the Council as a representative of the junior branch of the membership, until Mr. Rogers resigned, he never once found him lacking in resource or in ability to untie a knot or to find a solution of any difficulty. Mr. Rogers had suggested that perhaps some passages in his address might be omitted at the discretion of his successor. That might be taken as necessary or not, but he was sure no history of The Institution would be complete without a record that on the retirement of the author of the Paper the Members felt honoured by his consenting to sit for his portrait to place among the other honoured men whose pictures adorned their walls.

Mr. Rogers had not referred to the, in his mind, important advance in the status of the Professional Associate. The last alteration in the qualification for that stage of membership had been made since Mr. Rogers resigned; and he hoped that they had now heard the last of any disparagement of the importance of the Junior Member or the Junior Degree. He thought his friends on the Council would bear him out when he declared that he, at least, highly esteemed the simple membership of The Institution, and he thought no less of it because they and the Members had honoured him with promotion.

Sir Ernest Clarke (Associate), on being called on

by the President for a few remarks upon the Paper, said that his point of view was rather different from that of the previous speakers, as they had spoken of Mr. Rogers as an official and servant of The Institution, whereas he wished to refer to him as a colleague. During the period of over eighteen years that he had been associated with Mr. Rogers as a fellow Secretary of a kindred society, he had found him ever helpful and sympathetic; and he could not doubt that the excellent relations which had always existed between the two institutions and their governing bodies had been greatly assisted by the good understanding between their secretaries. Much of what Mr. Rogers had said in his brilliant and witty address as to the administrative incidents of his career had touched a sympathetic chord in his own bosom; for secretarial life and difficulties were much the same, whether at Great George Street or Hanover Square or elsewhere.

The position of Secretary of an important public institution such as theirs was by no means an easy one to fill. It required for its complete fulfilment a combination of qualities that were not often to be met with in the same individual. Members of the Council, which Mr. Rogers had served so well and so faithfully for the long period of 36 years, had spoken—and with truth—of his having always had The Surveyors' Institution first in his thoughts, and of his having devoted his life and his great powers of work and brain to its service. With a Secretary proud of The Institution he represented, and an Institution proud of and confident in its Secretary, success was sure to follow. It was hardly too much to say that a considerable share of the credit for bringing The Institution to its present proud position of prosperity and public confidence was due to the Secretary who

had retired four years ago with so many gratifying marks of the esteem of his employers.

Although Mr. Rogers had refrained in his Paper (which was of the nature of a retrospect) from forecasting the future of The Institution, he felt sure that he and all present would agree that with a Council constituted as it was of the leaders of the profession, and with the able disciple of Mr. Rogers who was now at the helm as Secretary, there need be no fear lest The Institution might not go on and prosper, and enlarge and consolidate its present sphere of public usefulness.

Mr. William Woodward (Fellow) said he could not allow the opportunity to pass without saying a few words with reference to his dear friend Mr. Rogers. He wished to associate himself with all that had been said by previous speakers, and he thought those who knew The Institution from its commencement would agree that in speaking of The Surveyors' Institution they spoke at the same time of Julian C. Rogers.

He had always extended sympathy and encouragement to the young men in The Institution, and many of them owed the positions they now occupied to his assistance in the past. Had it not been for him he (Mr. Woodward) would never have worked, as he had for a quarter of a century, for the improvement of London. He remembered after reading a Paper at another Institution he came to see the Secretary and received great encouragement and help in the preparation of a Paper which he subsequently read before their Institution, and he felt sure that the same encouragement had been rendered to other young men.

He was glad to see Mr. Rogers in such excellent health; he had gone "back to the land," and he was

sure the land had done him good, and he hoped that for many years they would see him, with the rubicund countenance that he now possessed, and that he would give them the benefit of his presence, and of such literary excellence as he had given them that night.

The PRESIDENT said he had had the pleasure of knowing Mr. Rogers for nearly thirty-three years. It was in 1877 when he was first elected a Fellow of The Institution, and he remembered coming to him for some encouragement for the future. Ever since then he had always found him a staunch friend and a good adviser to those who went to him in trouble and sought his counsel. The Institution owed Mr. Rogers a debt of gratitude which it could never repay; his assiduous work during thirty-six years had brought The Institution to its great position, and to him in association with the former Presidents and the Council it was that The Institution owed its very being. The present Members could show their appreciation by keeping The Institution up to the very high mark which he set before them.

They were all pleased to see him there, they hoped he would come frequently to see them, they liked to see his beaming countenance and his activity. As Mr. Woodward had said he had gone "back to the "land"; the land certainly suited him and they would all like as soon as they could to go "back to the land" too, to get the same appearance as he had.

The vote of thanks having been put to the Meeting and carried unanimously—

Mr. JULIAN C. ROGERS (Honorary Member) said he was very much obliged to the President and to his other

old friends for their kind words. He would be a very vain person if he ventured to appropriate to himself a tithe of the kind things that had been said about him. The only thing he could claim to have done was to have given his best to The Institution. He had given such powers as he had to its development, and he was more than rewarded to see it at its present pinnacle of prosperity. It delighted him to know that they had in his successor a man exactly of his own mind.

He had been careful, as they had observed, to draw the line at the period when he himself ceased to be officially connected with The Institution; he did not conceive that his was the domain of prophesy, or that he had any business to map out a future for The Institution—that laid in other hands; but for the past he had certain qualifications, certainly the qualification of long experience, and if the result of his effort had been satisfactory, if he had produced a record that was worthy of surviving in the *Transactions* of the Institution he was more than rewarded for any pains that the effort had caused him. He thanked them most heartily for their very kind reception, and he hoped that they would allow him on some future occasion to supplement his Paper with another Paper on the contents of the library.

The Meeting then closed.

Paper 364.
No. 554.

THE REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND THE RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

By T. A. DICKSON (Fellow).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, 11th April,* 1910.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

In the early summer of last year our indefatigable Secretary honoured me by asking me to read a Paper upon the Report of the Poor Law Commission, and in a weak moment I consented to do so. In the autumn I plunged into my subject, and my Paper was practically finished before Christmas, as my instructions were to have it ready early in January. I have thought it right to preface my Paper with this preliminary note, because I do not refer therein to the controversy which has grown up round this Report. The supporters of the Minority Report have been holding meetings up and down the country advocating its proposals; this agitation has been responded to by the supporters of the Majority Report, who have founded a National Poor Law Reform Association, and the proposals of each of these antagonists have been met by the manifesto which has been issued by the Association of Poor Law Unions in England and Wales setting forth their view of the matter.

Into this controversy I have not entered; in my Paper I have endeavoured as fairly as possible to bring before you the principal features of the Report itself.

On the 4th December, 1905, just before Mr. Balfour's Government resigned, the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress was appointed.

The terms of reference of the Commission were as follows. To inquire :—

(1) Into the working of the laws relating to the relief of poor persons in the United Kingdom ;

(2) Into the various means which have been adopted outside the Poor Laws for meeting distress arising from want of employment, particularly during periods of severe industrial depression, and to consider and report whether any and if so what modification of the Poor Laws or change in their administration or fresh legislation for dealing with distress are advisable.

The number of Commissioners originally appointed was eighteen, but on the 12th February, 1906, the new Government added to the Commission Mr. F. Chandler, the secretary to an important trade union. Of these nineteen The O'Connor Don died, and his place was taken by Dr. Dennis Kelly, Bishop of Ross, Ireland; and Mr. Charles Booth was obliged to resign on account of ill-health before the Commission had concluded its labours.

Although the Commission was most representative in character and included an ex-Cabinet Minister (Lord George Hamilton, the Chairman), clergymen well known for their work among the poor, the permanent heads of the Local Government Boards for England, Scotland, and Ireland, a Poor Law inspector, professors of political economy, Poor Law guardians or ex-guardians, and con-

spicuous figures in philanthropic and social work, I think, bearing in mind the line the Commission have taken in their Report, that it was unfortunate that no representative of such a body as the County Councils Association was included among the Commissioners.

In February, 1909, the Report dealing with England and Wales was published, and those on Ireland and Scotland have since appeared, the latter as recently as November.

In my Paper I only propose to deal with the first of these Reports, to refer briefly to the memorandum of the chairman which is attached to the Report on Scotland, and to allude to Mr. Charles Booth's memorandum in the Blue Book [Cd. 4983] issued by the Poor Law Commission a few weeks ago.

During the three years the Commissioners were sitting they held more than two hundred meetings, took evidence written and oral from over thirteen hundred witnesses, and, in addition to evidence obtained from abroad, and reports from a number of special investigators appointed to inquire into particular subjects, themselves made more than eight hundred personal visits to unions, meetings of boards of guardians and institutions in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

The volume containing the Report on England and Wales extends to some 1,250 folio pages, and comprises a Majority Report of 654 pages, signed by fourteen out of eighteen Commissioners, with memoranda of reservations on particular points by five of these fourteen, and a Minority Report of over 500 pages signed by the other four Commissioners.

The Reports on Ireland and Scotland are also weighty documents in which the same difference of opinion is clearly shown.

However we may differ as to the value of the Reports we shall all be agreed that we owe a very great debt of gratitude to the Commissioners for their patient and self-denying labour, and for the enormous quantity of information upon a very important subject which they have accumulated.

Majority Report.

The Majority Report, which is signed by the chairman, all four officials, and nine other Commissioners, including such names as Mr. C. S. Loch and Miss Octavia Hill, is divided into nine parts.

Part I. deals with procedure.

Part II. is a statistical survey of Poor Law problems.

Part III. is an historical sketch of the Poor Laws down to 1834.

Part IV. gives the historical development and present condition of the various branches of the Poor Law.

Part V. deals with medical relief.

Part VI. is devoted to the problem of distress due to unemployment.

Part VII. is an account of the various charities with suggestions as to their reorganisation and co-operation with the Poor Law.

Part VIII. treats of miscellaneous subjects, such as invalidity insurance, settlement, compounding for rates, &c.

Part IX. gives in a condensed form a review of existing conditions and the proposed changes.

With the view of suggesting solutions of the problems they were asked to consider, these Commissioners make more than 230 recommendations, which occupy 24 printed folio pages.

Before considering the recommendations of the majority, with some of which the minority agree, it may be convenient shortly to give a few particulars of the problem to be solved.

Magnitude of the Problem.

First as to numbers. Twice a year—on the 1st January and the 1st July—the Local Government Board obtain a return of the total number of paupers in receipt of relief in each union in the United Kingdom. On the 1st January, 1908, the number of persons in receipt of relief was 928,671. This number was made up of 112,690 insane paupers in asylums, &c., 17,083 casual paupers, and 798,898 paupers of all other classes; but these figures do not give an adequate idea of the numbers brought under the influence of the Poor Law authorities within a given period. They are the numbers relieved on a certain day, and they do not take into account the persons who, though not in receipt at the moment, may have been relieved at other times. All the persons who have passed through the portals of the Poor Law must be counted before the full extent of the labours of the Poor Law authorities can be gauged. For this purpose the Commissioners obtained a special year's count of paupers for the year ending 30th September, 1907, and the number of persons excluding lunatics in asylums and casual paupers, was 1,709,436, or nearly twice as many as those relieved on January 1st, 1908, and equal to the population of the three largest provincial cities, viz., Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham; or, expressed in another way, nearly 5 per cent. of the estimated population for this period were paupers.

This vast army who were wholly or partially maintained at the public expense during the year ending September 30th, 1907, consisted of 526,449 men, 618,673 women, and 564,314 children under 16. It will be noticed that there is a higher rate of pauperism amongst women than men, and in the opinion of the Commissioners the principal cause of this is widowhood.

Again, in passing it may be stated that in the year's count the persons in receipt of out-door relief outnumbered those receiving in-door relief by more than 2 to 1, the numbers being 1,206,684 and 573,929.

In a table in which the Commissioners compare the mean of the two day counts taken each year since 1871 by the Local Government Board, the ratio of paupers per 1,000 of the estimated population is shown to have fallen from 31·2 per 1,000 for the nine years ending 1879-80 to 22·2 per 1,000 for the ten years ending 1905-6. The Commissioners say: "Some satisfaction may be "derived from the reduction in the ratio of pauperism "to population since the early seventies, but it should "not be allowed to obscure the fact that the amount of "the decrease is rapidly diminishing; that from 1901-2 "to 1905-6 there was a continuous increase in the ratio, "and that the number of persons relieved has con-"siderably increased during the cycle of the last ten "years." Unfortunately this increase is stated to be owing to the greater number of men relieved in workhouses and infirmaries, and it is suggested that this increase may be due partly to the effect of the Workmen's Compensation Act (which has made it more difficult for a man to obtain employment when thrown out of work in the later years of his life), partly to the Local Government Act of 1894, which changed the character of the Poor Law authorities, and partly to the fact that Poor

Law institutions are becoming more congenial and less unpopular with certain classes.

Next as to cost. In the year ended Lady Day, 1834, the year in which the Report of the previous Royal Commission was published, the expenditure on poor relief was £6,317,255, or 8*s.* 10*d.* per head of the estimated population; a considerable reduction followed upon the establishment of the new Poor Law, and in 1836-37 the expenditure was only just in excess of £4,000,000. In 1871-72, when we first have complete statistics of the number of paupers, it was just over £8,000,000, or almost exactly 7*s.* per head of population. Again, in 1887-88 the annual expenditure was £8,440,821, or 6*s.* 0¾*d.* per head of the estimated population, but in 1905-06 the total expenditure of poor relief amounted to £14,035,888, or 8*s.* 2¾*d.* per head of population—a very large increase.

The Commissioners sum up the general situation in regard to the increase in expenditure as follows: "We "find that whilst the expenditure per inhabitant has "increased from 7*s.* 0¼*d.* to 8*s.* 2¾*d.* since 1871-72, and "is only 7¼*d.* less than it was in 1834, the expenditure "per pauper has increased from £7 12*s.* 1*d.* to "£15 12*s.* 6*d.* in the same period. The country is "maintaining a multitude of paupers not far short of "the number maintained in 1871-72 and is spending "more than double the amount upon each individual. "The increased expenditure has done little towards "diminishing the extent of pauperism. Such advance as "the nation has made has been accomplished at an "enormous cost, and absorbs an annual amount which is "now equivalent to nearly half the present expenditure "upon the army."

Part of this increase in expenditure is said to be due to the increase in the number of officials and a general

rise in salaries, and to greater expenditure on buildings and maintaining institutions.

The task of providing for the care and maintenance of this very large number of paupers devolves upon 643 boards of guardians, acting under the direction of a central authority—the Local Government Board. The Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834, based on the recommendations of the Royal Commission which had just reported, provided for a central authority to be known as the Poor Law Commissioners, who should direct and to some extent control boards of unpaid guardians possessing a certain prescribed property qualification, elected by and representing the various parishes which were united together to form a union. To these elected guardians were added, as *ex-officio* members, the local justices of the peace, and in London, in 1867, certain members nominated by the central authority. The 643 unions, which form the independent centres of administration to-day, were gradually formed by the grouping together of 15,500 parishes.

In 1847 the Poor Law Commissioners were superseded by another set of Commissioners, known as the Poor Law Board, and in 1871 the powers and duties of the Poor Law Board were transferred to the Local Government Board.

The constitution of the new and unpaid boards of guardians remained unaltered until 1894, when the Local Government Act put an end to all property qualifications for the office of guardians, and abolished *ex officio* and nominated guardians, whose irregular attendance in the years immediately preceding 1894 was probably one reason for this alteration. Although by the Act of 1894 boards of guardians were given the power of co-opting a limited number of members from

outside their body, they do not appear as a rule to have been anxious to avail themselves of the privilege of strengthening their *personnel* by co-option, as the Commission reports that there were only 370 co-opted members out of a possible 2,572, and on 425 boards out of 643 there were no co-opted members at all.

Coming now to the recommendations. In the time at my disposal it is impossible to deal with all of these, so I propose to refer only to the more important.

Change of Name. Public Assistance to be substituted for Poor Law Relief.

The Commissioners think that the name "Poor "Law" has gathered about it associations of harshness and still more of hopelessness which they fear may seriously affect the reforms they desire to see initiated. They accordingly are of opinion that the system to be proposed by them will be better expressed by the title of "Public Assistance" rather than by that of Poor Law, and they therefore recommend that the new local authority shall be known as the "Public Assistance "Authority," and that the committee which will carry on this work locally shall be known as the "Public "Assistance Committee."

Powers and Means of Local Government Board to be greatly increased.

The Commission are also of opinion that the central authority, *i.e.*, the Local Government Board ought to assume a more direct position of guidance and initiation in regard to local authorities, and they regret that the

Local Government Board has no continuous policy, but reflects the uncertain and changing views of Parliament. The Commissioners suggest that the control of the new system should be in the hands of a separate public assistance division of the Local Government Board under a separate assistant secretary, and with the view of making the policy and intentions of the central department clearer, they recommend that all its orders and circulars should be codified and consolidated and that a small manual of instructions for the guidance of local authorities should be issued from time to time by the Local Government Board.

In their opinion the status of the Local Government Board does not seem adequate considering its importance, and they agree with the proposal to raise the salary and status of the head of the Local Government Board to that of a Secretary of State. They also proceed to say: "The enormous mass of administrative questions "brought within the cognizance of the Local Govern- "ment Board upon subjects which do not brook of delay "gives to the higher officials insufficient time for the "study of new and perplexing problems as they arise "and come up before them. The volume and importance "of such questions are on the increase, and we feel it "therefore of great importance that the staff of this "office should be adequately increased so as to relieve "the Permanent Secretary and the higher officials of the "undue strain which the present conditions often "impose upon them." Among other suggestions they advise that the appointments of general inspector should only be given to those who have special qualifications, and that these qualifications should as a rule be tested by service for a probationary period as an assistant inspector; with regard to auditors, they recommend

that appointments should be made from the ranks of assistant auditors and that qualification for assistant auditors should be defined and tested by examination, and that there should be an increase of the auditing staff.

New Local Authorities to be created.

The Commission advise that the duties now performed by boards of guardians should be divided into two parts and be performed by two new bodies :—

(1) A local authority for central administration and control within an enlarged area to be known as the Public Assistance Authority, which is to be a statutory committee of the county or county borough constituted as follows :—

(A) One-half the number to be appointed by the council of the county or county borough, and the persons so appointed may be persons who are members of the council.

(B) The other half to be appointed by the council from outside their number, and to consist of persons experienced in the local administration of public assistance or other cognate work.

(C) The actual number of members of the Public Assistance Authority in each case and from time to time to be determined by the Local Government Board after consideration of a scheme submitted on the first occasion by the council of the county or county borough and on subsequent occasions by the Public Assistance Authority.

(D) Women to be eligible for appointment under either head (A) or (B).

(2) A local committee to be known as the Public Assistance Committee for dealing with applications, investigating and supervising cases, and undertaking such other duties as may be delegated to them by the Public Assistance Authority. These Public Assistance Committees to include "a certain proportion of persons nominated by the urban and rural district councils and, where a Voluntary Aid Committee has been established, a certain proportion nominated by that committee. Persons so nominated shall be experienced in the local administration of public assistance or other cognate work and shall include a proportion of women, in our judgment not ordinarily less than one-third."

Alteration of Poor Law Area.

The Commission recommend that the area of the Public Assistance Authority should be coterminous with the area of the county or county borough instead of the unions; that the area of the Public Assistance Committee should be the union area in the first instance, and ultimately should be coterminous with one or more rural or urban districts.

In the case of London the scheme suggested by the Commission is practically the same and is as follows:— The area for the new Public Assistance Authority to be that of the London County Council; the area of the Public Assistance Committee to be generally the areas of the existing unions with readjustment in some cases.

The Public Assistance Authority to be a Statutory Committee of the London County Council, one-half to be nominated from its members or from outside, one-quarter to be appointed by the London County Council from persons of experience outside their own number, and one-quarter to be nominated by the Local Government Board. The Public Assistance Committees to be constituted as in the county, except that nominees of the Metropolitan Borough Councils are to be substituted for nominees of urban and rural district councils.

The poor rate over the whole area of London to be uniform.

It will be observed that the Commission propose an entirely new scheme, and that the principles upon which this scheme is based are:—

(1) The abolition of the present boards of guardians;

(2) The alteration of the Poor Law area from the union to the county or county borough; and

(3) The substitution of the principle of appointment for election *ad hoc.*

The reasons advanced for the abolition of boards of guardians are:—

(A) That there has been no marked decrease in the number of paupers during the last forty years;

(B) That the expense of poor relief has grown from £8,000,000 in 1871-2 to £14,000,000 in 1905-6, and in their Report the Commission say in this connection: "It is very unpleasant to "record that notwithstanding our assumed "moral and material progress, and notwith- "standing the enormous annual expenditure "amounting to nearly £60,000,000 a year on "Poor Relief, Education, and Public Health, we

"still have a vast army of persons quartered "upon us unable to support themselves, an "army which in numbers has recently shown "signs of increase rather than decrease. To "what is this retrogression due? It cannot be "attributed to lack of expenditure. The statis- "tical review of the expenditure incurred, and "of the results attained by it, prove that some- "thing in our social organisation is seriously "wrong, and that whatever may be the evils "they are not of such a nature as to be improved "or removed by the mere signing of cheques "or the outpouring of public funds."

(C) That the present system does not supply a sufficient number of qualified administrators, and instances are given in the Report of the class of guardians who are elected in some cases, guardians who have been administering relief to those on whom they rely for support in their business, as customers or tenants, or who even go so far as to acquiesce in the following view:—

"We are sent here to give out-door relief to "our relations, our fathers, and our mothers, "and our sisters, and our cousins, and our "uncles, and our aunts, and if we did not do it "we should soon be sent about our business."

(D) That the business is in consequence mismanaged in many cases, and attention is drawn by the Commission to the way in which the business at the meetings of some boards is conducted and to the lack of uniformity in the policy adopted by possibly two neighbouring boards. It is not contended that the administration is

> universally bad, for the Commissioners admit that cases of flagrant abuse are not common and are not typical of the general way in which the work is done, and they add: "We welcome "the opportunity of putting on record our high "appreciation of the steadfastness and wisdom "which have marked the work of many boards, "but there is at present no adequate means of "raising the standard of work to this high "level nor to ensure that the condition of "things to be found in many unions shall be "impossible for the future."

In support of the alteration of the Poor Law area from the union to the county or county borough, it is argued that the union is too small an area for the purpose of providing proper institutional treatment which the Commissioners strongly advocate, and that with such areas as a county or county borough arrangements could be made by which children could be housed in one institution, the aged in another, the sick in a third, the feeble-minded and epileptic in a fourth, and so on. In their opinion, weight ought to be attached to the evidence of the representatives of the Workhouse Masters and Matrons' Association, who state that "with proper classification of and in workhouses, it "would be possible to treat each class of inmates on "its merits. If you give us all classes to look after, as "we have at present, we want expert knowledge on "every point, and it is impossible in the one house, "with the one staff of officials, to get it. That is one "reason why we request so strongly classification by "workhouses as well as in workhouses."

The reasons advanced for the direct appointment of guardians are:—

(1) The apathy of voters in regard to Poor Law elections. In London only 28 per cent. of the electorate polled at the guardians' elections as compared with 78 per cent. at the parliamentary elections, and in the country similar conditions appear to prevail. The Commissioners argue that owing to the prevalent indifference to Poor Law elections, although a good board may sometimes be re-elected when the few who do vote and the candidates are persons genuinely interested in Poor Law administration, the system is open to the marked disadvantage that a constituency is always open to capture by any party, political or otherwise, which is prepared to throw a little energy into the matter, and the whole policy of a board may be reversed by a single election.

(2) The contention that boards of guardians have fallen in esteem, and that many persons admirably fitted to become guardians refuse to stand for election.

(3) The alleged fact that many guardians who are elected are compelled to give pledges of abundant or easy relief.

Co-ordination of Charity with Public Assistance.

In pursuance of the terms of the reference to inquire into the various means which have been adopted outside the Poor Laws for meeting distress arising from want of employment, particularly during periods of severe industrial depression, the Commission deal with this branch of the subject in Part VI. of their Report, to

which I will refer later, but cognate to it they review the relations between charity and the relief of distress in Part VII.

The Commissioners point out that "The charities of "the country, endowed and voluntary, represent a very "large force and considerable means, which are at the "disposal of the community for the relief of distress. "Many of them have the services of skilled and "experienced workers. Their aggregate income is "great. They are centres at which groups of persons "of many kinds and classes are brought into direct com- "munication with those who are in need or distress, and "their aims and methods indicate generally what are "the thoughts and conceptions of the people in regard "to charitable relief. Men and women, so far as they "learn to consider and deal with the problem of relief "seriously, find their training and guidance in part no "doubt at boards of guardians, but chiefly in connection "with these bodies. Every year new foundations are "established and large amounts are bequeathed as "endowments or left by bequest to voluntary institu- "tions. The force represented by the charities is thus "a growing force which is affecting the well-being of "the recipient classes in many ways for good or for evil"; but they proceed, "As in the case of the Poor Law "Administration, and especially in the distribution of "out-door relief, we have found great varieties of "practice, and sometimes a slip-shod and purposeless "giving which was altogether wasteful and very in- "jurious, so in the case of charities we have found "instances of quite useless and ineffective gifts. The "charities, both endowed and voluntary, are not regarded "and utilised as parts of a common organisation. They "continue to exist just as they have come into existence,

" individual entities, each independent of the other, each " fulfilling in separation its larger or lesser functions. " They do not exchange information, and have no " common centre of inquiry and registration, except in " so far as in some towns they may use the facilities " which are placed at their disposal by Charity Organisa- " tion Committees. They stand aloof from each other " and from the Poor Law, and the Poor Law from " them."

The income of the charities represents a very large sum. That of the charitable agencies in London, without taking into account the sums contributed congregationally, amounts to more than £7,500,000, which is more than half as much again as the total annual expenditure from the rates levied by the guardians and cognate public authorities.

The gross income of the endowed charities which are dealt with by the Report is £991,959, of which £661,147 is applicable to the maintenance of alms people and pensioners and £325,812 to distribution among the poor as doles. The whole of this sum is appropriated—" most " of it very strongly appropriated to localities."

The Commission speak in very uncomplimentary terms of the effect of these dole charities upon localities and individuals. If they had their desire they would be administered on lines parallel to the Poor Law. Co-operation would take the place of supplementation. To make the charities useful and to bring them into co-ordination is usually a very unpopular task. Local residents and trustees fear to undertake it. Reform therefore in the opinion of the Commissioners must come in great measure from without.

Similarly with regard to voluntary charities which deal with very large sums. Here again there seems to

be no common local centre for inquiry, registration or co-operation. Consequently there is over-lapping, not only among the charities themselves but between the charities and the Poor Law. Sometimes each agency relieves without regard to what the other is giving, with the result that the case receives more assistance than is required, or each agency assumes that the other is looking properly after the case with the result that it is inadequately relieved.

As a remedy for all these evils the Commission propose to thoroughly reorganise the service of charity. The scheme involves a "widespread auxiliary federation "of voluntary effort, which working parallel to the "official administration of poor relief may assist the "community very materially in the relief of the poor, "the promotion of health and independence and in "much other cognate work."

Voluntary Aid Councils and Committees are therefore to be formed, and in order to ensure local co-operation between voluntary effort and local assistance, members of the Voluntary Aid Committee are to sit on the Public Assistance Committee, and members of the Public Assistance Authority on the Voluntary Aid Council. A similar central co-operation will be effected by affiliating the Charity Commission to the Local Government Board, and making the President of that Board responsible in Parliament for the Commission.

Distress due to Unemployment.

To the important subject of distress due to unemployment the Commission devote Part VI. of the Report, but I am sorry time will only allow me to touch the fringe of this subject. The first chapter of this part of the Report is devoted to a review of the

historical developments since the passing of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834, and of the more prominent existing industrial conditions, which shows that the problem to be dealt with now is far more complicated than that of 1834.

The Commission conclude their survey of social and industrial developments with the following passage :—

" Whilst the moral causes contributing to pauperism " and unemployment remain much the same as before, " the material influences regulating employment and " industry have changed both in their character and scope. " Forces have come into operation affecting employment, " its regularity, its cessation and expansion, which are " quite beyond local control. Cyclical fluctuations now " are worldwide in their effect upon industry and its " employés. Changes in methods of production follow " one another more rapidly than heretofore, and as " specialisation becomes more marked and definite, those " habituated and trained to the processes that are super- " seded find it more and more difficult to obtain occupa- " tion elsewhere. Trade unions and employers' organi- " sations have in response as it were to one another suc- " ceeded the one in raising the standard of wages, the " other the standard of industrial efficiency. Those who " are not in the prime of life nor in positions of adequate " physical strength or competency are apt to fall out of " an industrial system which is above their level. There " is also a large amount of work which partakes more of " the character of personal service than of industrial " production, such as that of errand boys, newspaper " boys, telegraph boys, street sellers, occupations which " though remunerative for the time being to those " engaged in them have a tendency to cease at adoles- " cence. A considerable proportion of those so occupied

" early in life become subsequently either unemployed " or under employed and swell the ranks of casuality. " Casual and other occupations giving intermittent " employment engage a large proportion of the wage- " earning class—possibly a larger proportion than hereto- " fore—and the ranks of those seeking this form of " maintenance are periodically swollen by those who " have lost or proved their unfitness for a regular or " skilled occupation."

" These are modifications and developments in our " industrial system which cannot be ignored, and their " products and wreckage, when either out of employ- " ment or in distress, require a treatment more elastic " and varied than the simple method which eighty years " ago was sufficient to cope with able-bodied pauperism " in agricultural districts."

The Commission proceed to show that so far as the great mass of the wage-earning classes are concerned there is a marked improvement in their condition now as compared with that of 1834. Wages have risen, working hours have been reduced, and the cost of living is diminished. The improvement is also evidenced by the returns of the benefit societies and the savings banks, the deposits in the latter having increased during the last fifty years from £29,000,000 to £209,500,000. With this general improvement able-bodied pauperism has certainly diminished, but the decrease has taken place more in the country districts than in the towns, so that it is not the country unions but those in the towns, more especially in the densely populated towns, which are feeling the pressure of able-bodied pauperism to-day. The modern difficulties of the unemployment problem are :—

(A) The problem of the casual and inefficient labourer;

(B) The problem of the efficient workmen displaced by causes beyond their control;

(C) The lack of sufficient information to enable administrators to differentiate in their treatment of these two classes; and

(D) The insufficient mobility of labour.

The Commission then proceed to deal in some detail with the four systems available for the relief of the unemployed able-bodied, viz.:—

(1) The Poor Law;
(2) Charity;
(3) Municipal relief works;
(4) The Unemployed Workmen Act.

(1) The Poor Law.

The Poor Law methods of dealing with the able-bodied unemployed are:—

The workhouse;
Emigration;
The labour yard;
Outdoor relief (unconditional).

The Commission are of opinion that the workhouse and labour yard encourage and even produce the inefficient and "in and out," while they deter or degrade the efficient workmen.

With regard to emigration the Commission think that this is not sufficiently used to produce any marked effect upon the unemployed problem.

In dealing with unconditional outdoor relief the Commission say: "Unconditional relief to the able-bodied tends to aggravate rather than diminish those accumulations of surplus labour which are among the disquieting features of modern industrial conditions";

and as to the effect of the Poor Law on the mobility of labour they say : "The whole influence of the present "Poor Law upon pauperism is centripetal rather than "centrifugal. Except to the extent to which the "guardians can emigrate and can remove under the law "of settlement, they can only deal with the poor by "relieving them where they are."

The conclusion, therefore, of the Commission is that the present Poor Law does nothing to decrease the immobility of labour, or to grapple with the new tendencies which go to make up the modern problem of relief to the distressed able-bodied.

(2) Charity.

The Commission then review the different charitable funds which have been established from time to time to relieve the able-bodied, and which from the time of the great metropolitan distress in 1860 and the Lancashire cotton famine in 1861-63 down to the Mansion House and Press funds of more recent years have originated on the assumption that the resources of the Poor Law have been inadequate to meet the situation.

The Commission in this connection also deal with the more prominent charitable institutions for the relief of distress, such as the Charity Organisation Society, the Church Army, and the Salvation Army, and they are of opinion that in their respective spheres these organisations have done a considerable amount of good, but that the intervention of sporadic and unorganised charity in times of special distress or want of employment has done little good and much harm.

(3) Municipal Relief Works.

The Commission next turn to municipal relief works, which were advocated by Mr. Chamberlain, when

President of the Local Government Board in 1886, and were intended for the better class of workmen to whom "it was not desirable to familiarise the Poor Law relief." No effective measures, however, were taken by the municipalities to ensure that they should confine their relief works to the particular class of workmen suggested by the Local Government Board, with the result that in the opinion of the Commissioners municipal relief works have not only not assisted but rather prejudiced the better class of workmen they were intended to help, and have encouraged the casual labourers by giving them a further supply of that casual work which is so dear to their hearts and so demoralising to their character.

(4) The Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

The Commission then consider the operation of this Act, of which the three specific objects its promoters had in view were :—

(A) To deal with the élite of the unemployed—to benefit regular workmen of good character temporarily out of work ;

(B) To correct some of the abuses of the municipal relief works system ; and

(C) To prevent the demoralisation of the unemployed by indiscriminate charity.

After carefully considering the evidence the Commission came to the conclusion that, although the local authorities set up by the Act have accomplished good work with regard to emigration, labour colonies, and labour exchanges, these methods of assisting the distressed able-bodied can be carried out in other ways, and that as the Act has failed to attain its object in other directions it should not be continued.

Before proceeding to set out in detail their suggestions of amendment, the Commission summarise the defects in the present system of Poor Law administration, and it may be convenient to tabulate the chief of those to which I have previously alluded in my Paper :—

The inadequacy of existing Poor Law areas to meet the growing needs of adminstration;

The absence of any general interest in Poor Law work and Poor Law elections;

The general rise in expenditure not always accompanied by an increase of efficiency;

The want of sufficient control and continuity of policy on the part of the central authority;

The tendency of candidates to make lavish promises of out-relief, and of guardians to favour their constituents in its distribution;

General failure to attract capable social workers and leading citizens;

The lack of intelligent uniformity in the application of principles, and in general administration;

The lack of co-operation between Poor Law and charity.

I have already mentioned some of the machinery which the Commission propose should be substituted for the present system of Poor Law administration, viz. :—

Poor relief to be known as public assistance;

County or county borough to be unit of area instead of union;

Committees known as public assistance authorities and public assistance committees to take the place of guardians;

Charitable aid to be organised by means of

voluntary aid councils and voluntary aid committees which are to act in co-operation with the public assistance authority and public assistance committees.

But in addition to these the Commission suggest measures of (1) preventive, and (2) remedial character, for dealing with the unemployed and necessitous able-bodied.

As a preventive measure, and to check the tendency for children on leaving school to slip into occupations and callings which lead first to casuality and then to unemployment, the Commission favour the suggestion that boys should be kept at school until the age of 15, that exemption below this age should be granted only for boys leaving to learn a skilled trade; and that there should be school supervision till 16, and replacement in school of boys not properly employed.

I am afraid the advantage of keeping boys at school till 15, in the country at any rate, is very problematical and a suggestion which I could not support, but I think most of us will agree with the further suggestion of the Commission that the Board of Education should thoroughly reconsider the time table and curriculum in our elementary schools, as well as the aims and ideals of elementary education, with the view of making them more practical.

The remedial measures which the Commission recommend for the treatment of the unemployed able-bodied are as follows:—

"There shall be in every district four separate but "closely co-operating organisations with the common "object of maintaining or restoring the workman's "independence, viz.:—

"(A) An organisation for insurance against unem-
" ployment to develope and secure (with contri-
" butions from public funds) the greatest
" possible benefits to the workmen from co-
" operative insurance against unemployment;

"(B) A labour exchange established and maintained
" by the Board [of Trade] to provide efficient
" machinery for putting those requiring work
" and those requiring workers into prompt
" communication"; [The Labour Exchanges Act which received the Royal Assent in September last was passed to carry out this idea.]

"(C) A Voluntary Aid Committee to give advice
" and aid out of voluntary funds especially to
" the better class of workmen reduced to want
" through unemployment;

"(D) A Public Assistance Authority representing
" the county or county borough and acting
" locally through a Public Assistance Committee
" to assist necessitous workmen under specified
" conditions at the public expense."

(Two of these organisations (A) and (C) will be representative of self-help and voluntary effort and will be worked through voluntary organisations. The other two will be public organisations financed by public money and staffed by public officials.)

"It shall be a fundamental principle of the system " of public assistance that the responsibility for the due " and effective assistance of all necessitous persons at " the public expense shall be in the hands of one and " only one authority in each county and county borough, " viz., the Public Assistance Authority." (The Commission therefore recommend that the Unemployed Work-

men Act, 1905, shall expire as soon as the new system has come into operation.)

"The guiding principles of the organisations engaged " in the work of public assistance should be—

" (A) Co-operation so as to secure prompt and effi-
" cacious treatment of appropriate cases by the
" various agencies such as the Voluntary Aid
" Committee, the Labour Exchange, and the
" Public Assistance Committee;

"(B) Discrimination so as to select treatment appro-
" priate for each case and yet encourage general
" thrift and independence; and

" (C) Restoration so as to prepare workmen by
" restorative treatment for return to indepen-
" dent life."

The principle of classification lies at the root of the new system, and the methods of treatment of the able-bodied are tabulated as follows:—

(1) Home assistance;
(2) Partial home assistance;
(3) Institutional assistance;
(4) Continuous maintenance in a detention colony under the Home Office;
(5) Emigration.

It will be seen from the above table that arrangements are suggested for securing separate and appropriate treatment for the better as well as the worse class of the able-bodied, and the new departure in the scheme is in the arrangement for the detention of the loafer or "work-shy," as foreshadowed in (4).

The Commission say in respect of this proposal, "the " result of this provision will be, we hope, that the " loafer, the 'in-and-out,' the person who neglects his

" family or who makes them chargeable owing to habits " of gambling, drink, or idleness, &c., &c., will be submitted " to a course of severe discipline and training, which, if it " does not restore the man to a comparative state of " industrial efficiency, will at the least for a certain " period prevent him from further demoralisation, and " will, to some extent, deter both himself and others " from indulging in the vice or habit responsible for his " downfall."

(1) *Home Assistance* will be provided for the better class of the unemployed. This means out-door relief for a strictly limited period given to an approved applicant on condition of (A) daily work, (B) that he is registered at the labour exchange, and (C) that the relief should cease as soon as a suitable occupation has been offered through the labour exchange.

(2) *Partial Home Assistance,* where home assistance is given to the family of an applicant who is himself maintained in an institution and given work.

(3) *Institutional Assistance,* by which is meant " continuous maintenance in an industrial or agricul- " tural institution or colony without detention, except in " so far as the applicant binds himself by a written " agreement to stay for a definite period."

One of the main objects of these institutions is the restoration to industrial efficiency and independence of the inmates within their walls.

(4) *Detention Colonies* are a necessary corollary to voluntary industrial or agricultural institutions. These colonies are to be reserved for those who wilfully neglect to maintain themselves or their families, or who receiving assistance wilfully refuse to perform the work or observe the regulations duly prescribed in regard to such assistance; or who give way to "gambling, drink or idleness"

so that the person or his or her family become chargeable.

They would be under the control and supervision of the Home Office, and persons might be committed for any of the above offences for any period between six months and three years.

(5) *Emigration* is to be available for a certain class of cases "which are likely to make a fresh start under "new conditions. More especially is it indispensable in "dealing with districts where an excessive congestion "of labour has taken place and where exceptional treatment is called for."

Other Recommendations.

Indoor Relief or Institutional Assistance.

As already mentioned, the Commission recommend as a complement to the enlargement of the Poor Law area—and following the intention of the 1832 Commission—that classification should be by institution and that in the future—

(1) General workhouses should be abolished; and that

(2) Indoor relief should be given in separate institutions appropriate for the following classes of applicants, viz.:—

(A) Children;
(B) Aged and infirm;
(C) Sick;
(D) Able-bodied men;
(E) Able-bodied women;
(F) Vagrants; and
(G) Feeble-minded and epileptics.

In every institution for the aged and able-bodied a

system of classification should be embodied on the basis of conduct before and after admission.

Treatment in institutions should be made as far as possible curative and restorative, and with a view to seeing whether the existing treatment is producing the desired result or whether it is desirable that the treatment should be altered, all indoor cases are to be revised from time to time by a responsible Committee.

Outdoor Relief or Home Assistance.

The Commission recommend that *out-relief or home assistance* as they prefer to call it should only be given after thorough inquiry, that it should be adequate, that persons so assisted should be subject to supervision, and that it should be a condition of out-relief that the recipients are living respectable lives in decent houses. As a step towards this they consider that the Public Assistance Authority should have power to refuse relief in certain areas where the conditions of living are bad. There should also be a systematic co-operation between the Public Assistance Authorities and recognised Voluntary Aid Committees in the care and treatment of cases, and voluntary agencies should be utilised as far as possible for this purpose.

Medical Relief.

Coming next to medical relief or assistance, the Commission recommend that medical assistance should be organised on a provident basis, and that a county medical assistance committee, consisting of some members of the Public Assistance Authority, representatives of the health committee of the county or borough council, of the British Medical Association, local

hospitals, nursing associations, dispensaries and friendly societies, should be responsible for medical assistance within the area of the county or county borough; that a general system of provident dispensaries should be established, and that every inducement should be offered to the working classes below a certain wage to become members of such dispensaries, which would carry with it the privilege of choosing their own doctor, and of obtaining institutional treatment in either public assistance or voluntary hospitals; but that when an applicant is not a member of a provident dispensary he should apply to and at once be treated by a district medical officer, and the relieving officer (hereafter called the assistance officer) should inquire into and report the case to the Public Assistance Committee, whose action should be directed towards the recovery of cost and the strengthening of provident agencies.

Limitation of Disfranchisement.

The Commission also recommend that public assistance should not disfranchise its recipient unless he receive assistance for more than three months in the qualifying year, and that medical assistance in any form should not entail disfranchisement.

Minority Report.

I have already mentioned the fact that four Commissioners have issued a Minority Report, and, before concluding, it is only fair that I should mention its principal features.

The Minority Report—most ably written but frankly socialistic—is almost as long as that of the Majority. On several points the Majority and Minority are in

agreement, as appears from the chairman's Memorandum attached to the Report on Scotland, in which he says: "So far as the review of the system and practices of "the existing Poor Law administration is concerned "there is little difference in substance between the two "Reports. They practically condemn the same things, "notably the general workhouse, the absence of classifi- "cation, and the lack of curative and restorative methods "of treatment, the general inadequacy and want of "investigation connected with outdoor relief. Both are "equally emphatic in condemning a system of mere "deterrence, and both urge, in the new processes of "treatment to be adopted, that relief should be associated "with a continuous attempt to strike at the sources and "roots of pauperism and destitution."

The Minority, however, are of opinion that it is unnecessary to create new statutory committees of the county council, but that so far as regards the non-able-bodied, the duty of providing for them may be distributed among the existing committees of the county or county borough council. They accordingly propose that the provision for

> Children of school age;
> The sick and the permanently incapacitated;
> Infants under school age;
> The aged needing institutional care;
> The mentally deficient of all grades and of all ages;
> And the old to whom pensions are awarded

should be assumed under the direction of the county and county borough councils by

(1) The Education Committee;
(2) The Health Committee;

(3) The Asylums Committee; and

(4) The Pensions Committee

of the county or county borough council respectively.

In the latest Report, viz., that on Scotland, the Minority recommend that it shall be the duty of each of these committees "To search out and enforce relief "upon all whose nurture, medical attendance, and sur- "roundings are not up to the standard the particular "authority in question may consider to be necessary."

The great difference, however, between the two Reports is in the treatment of the unemployed able-bodied.

Time will not allow me to give any details of the scheme proposed, except to say that for organising the labour market so as to prevent or minimise unemployment it is recommended that a new ministry of labour should be established, including six distinct and separate organised divisions which are to be responsible for the whole subject.

Drastic proposals are suggested as to boy labour and shorter hours, and a suggestion is made that the Government should arrange that a portion of the ordinary work required for each department should be voted on a ten years' programme to the extent of at least £4,000,000 a year; the £40,000,000 worth of work to be put in hand being distributed over the ten years, not in equal annual instalments but in accordance with the condition of the labour market.

It is also suggested by the Minority that maintenance should be freely provided for the residuum of men in distress from want of employment without disfranchisement on condition that they submit themselves to the physical and mental training that they may be proved to require.

Such then in crude outline are the principal features of the Majority and Minority Reports.

Summary.

May I now venture shortly to make a few comments upon some of the recommendations ?

First as to Area. The county is to be substituted for the union mainly with the view to better classification of workhouses, but except perhaps for the feeble-minded of the worst type, the hopelessly incorrigible and the children, classification as recommended by the Commission could not be carried out in practice except in London or in some of our larger provincial towns.

Dr. Downes, one of the most experienced of the Commissioners, in his Memorandum to the Majority Report, points out what are in his opinion some of the fatal objections to the proposal. He shows—basing his conclusions on Mr. Booth's Memorandum—that a very drastic readjustment of existing properties and liabilities will be necessary, involving much time, trouble, and expense, without finality being secured; that as boroughs grow in importance they will claim to rank as county boroughs, that each change will necessitate a fresh adjustment, and the more complete the arrangements provided for institutional treatment by the administrative county the more difficult the arrangement would become.

"With what confidence could institutions be estab-
"lished for so uncertain a population ?" *

Then again, the result of the proposals of the Commission would be to reduce union areas in many instances, as in the case of county boroughs now included

* Mr. Charles Booth.

in union areas. In this connection Dr. Downes points out that, "At present there are 92 Poor Law unions, "each with a population of more than 100,000. Among "the administrative counties and county boroughs by "which it is proposed that these unions should be "replaced 77 only have populations exceeding 100,000.

"The scheme in fact does not solve the problem "of the great urban population where necessity for "reform is greatest, while it threatens a maximum of "disturbance to rural districts where the need is least "pressing. It may indeed be doubted whether many of "the proposed areas would after all suffice for a com- "plete self-contained scheme of classification, some of "them are manifestly too small for moderate or even "elementary requirements. . . . . From these objections "the policy of grouping or amalgamating existing "unions would be largely free. The adjustment of "properties and liabilities would be comparatively "simple. The plan could look forward to and auto- "matically provide for the future; existing machinery "would be available and could be used for all it was "worth."

And again, as Dr. Downes reminds his brother Commissioners, in rural districts pauperism is largely an affair of old age and may reasonably be expected to be substantially relieved by the Old Age Pensions Act, so that the necessity for drastic interference with these areas is not apparent.

With these conclusions of Dr. Downes I am in complete agreement. *

* Since my Paper was written the Blue Book (Cd. 4983) containing Mr. Charles Booth's valuable Memoranda has been published. He does not agree with the proposal to adopt the county and the county borough as the new area. In his opinion it is a question of a population "socially "interconnected and industrially interdependent," and yet sufficiently

Next with regard to the abolition of Guardians. The apathy of the electors in the case of the election of guardians must, I think, be conceded. The statement that boards of guardians are not always held in the esteem their duties merit must also I think be allowed, as well as the statement that in some cases there has been a dereliction of duty on the part of guardians, but in my opinion in these days it is a political impossibility to think of setting up a spending authority on a non-elective, non-representative and therefore non-popular basis. Whatever the defects of the present system are, in my opinion they will not be remedied by the proposals of the Commissioners.

Speaking as a humble county councillor, county councils have more than sufficient work to occupy fully their attention, unless members are prepared, and can afford, to give their whole time to the work, so that it would be impossible to get a satisfactory number of members of a county council to undertake their share of the work of the Public Assistance Authority, and unless a moiety of the Public Assistance Authority were members of the county council this committee would lose all semblance of being elective.

large to ensure a proper provision of institutions for all classes of the destitute. The county area in his opinion would not ensure this. Mr. Booth therefore prefers a plan of amalgamating existing union areas, and by means of a map he shows how out of the unions in and around London and twelve others of our large urban centres he would form thirteen Poor Law Boards, and how by grouping minor urban, semi-rural, and rural areas together for the purpose of providing different kinds of institutions, but retaining the present unions as areas of administration, the rest of England and Wales can be covered.

By this plan Mr. Booth hopes that many of the evils which he recognises exist in the present administration of the Poor Law may be removed "that a new dignity would be added to the whole service, a "higher tone be set and a depth of interest aroused in the work, which "would not only facilitate the action and strengthen the hands of "the Local Government Board, but perhaps exercise a salutary influence on the Central Administration itself."

Such being the case I am of opinion that an *ad hoc* authority elected from an area or two or more unions in combination would improve the status of the guardians and would diminish the possibility of indiscreet promises, and if co-option instead of being optional as at present were made compulsory, as in the case of aldermen in county and borough councils, the administration of the Poor Law would be strengthened and better results would be obtained.

In this opinion I am supported by one of the best known Commissioners,* who says: "A statutory com- "mittee of the county council appears to me to be open "to the following objections:—

"(1) It tends to the municipalisation of the Poor "Law;

"(2) It is comparatively untried machinery; and

"(3) It is at best composed of those elected for "other duties and already over-weighted with "work."

"I should have recommended an *ad hoc* authority "elected from an enlarged area and with a strong nomi- "nated or co-opted element. The prospect of more "hopeful work which must open out with a fresh "arrangement would probably attract the services of "those interested in the poor and able to devote un- "divided strength and thought to them, as they would "not be burdened by county council business nor eager "for political advancement."

To the extra work proposed to be thrust upon county councils and to the principles involved as foreshadowed in the Minority Report I am quite opposed. As the chairman points out in his Memorandum already referred to, each of

* Miss Octavia Hill.

the four committees will become a "Destitute Authority" searching out and enforcing relief upon all whose nurture, medical attendance, and surroundings are not up to the standard the particular authority considers to be necessary. He shows from the experience of the Public Health Authority that the cost of such enforced relief cannot be recovered, and he points out that "irrecoverable expenditure when disbursed from public funds means gratuitous relief to the individual at the expense of the community."

In conclusion may I claim the indulgence of my fellow Members, and may I hope they will be merciful to the many imperfections of the Paper. The very magnitude of the subject is bewildering, and in my endeavour to compress the substance of more than 1,200 folio pages into something like reasonable compass I am aware there are some points which I have not emphasised quite as strongly as I might have done, and there are others which I have not alluded to at all; but whatever the shortcomings of the Paper may be I am confident you will allow me once again to say how deeply the country is indebted to the members of the Commission—whether we agree with their conclusions or not—who have "devoted high abilities and exemplary diligence to the study of one of the gravest problems of our time," and to express the hope that Parliament may shortly find time to consider this very difficult subject, and when doing so will take advantage of the labours of the Commission whose Report we have been considering.

Mr. W. Frank Perkins, M.P. (Fellow), on rising at the invitation of the President, said it was with peculiar pleasure that he came across the road that evening in order to undertake the very pleasant task of proposing

a vote of thanks to his old friend, Mr. Dickson, for his exceedingly able Paper. He did not claim in the least to be an authority on the Poor Law, or upon its amendment; but he did claim with great confidence to be an authority on the author of the Paper, for he was with him many years ago—he did not care to recollect how many years—at the Royal Agricultural College at Cirencester. They then had a very high opinion of his abilities as a botanist, an able geologist, a remarkably clever surveyor, and as a great authority on many other subjects appertaining to their profession. He might mention that at that time he was also one of the very best football players he had ever known.

He thought Mr. Dickson had shown his ability, as well as industry, in the exceedingly able and careful way in which he had summarised for them the technical and exceedingly voluminous series of portly folio volumes—twelve he thought in number—dealing with the enormous question of the reform of the Poor Law. He had been looking at them in the House of Commons library that afternoon, and he was appalled at the magnitude of the task that Mr. Dickson had undertaken, and he must say, having read both the Majority and Minority Reports, together with several commentaries on both, that Mr. Dickson had succeeded in a most remarkable manner in giving them a fair, unbiassed and succinct account of what the Commissioners proposed, and the conclusions at which the Commissioners had arrived.

It seemed to him desirable, at any rate for the purpose of discussion, that they should consider the general question of any alteration that might be necessary in our Poor Law system under three heads.

Surely the first and most important question which should be discussed was with regard to the preventive treatment of pauperism. Secondly, they had to deal with the huge and pressing question of relief of the deserving and undeserving; and, thirdly, they had to consider the question of penal administration in respect of those hopeless wastrels—of those terrible "work-shy" people who were called tramps—the loafers who could not be made to work by any ordinary system of workhouse labour and who, at any rate in his opinion, ought to be shut up in some form of penal settlement until they mended their ways.

With regard to the preventive aspect of the case the Poor Law Commissioners, both in the Minority and Majority Reports, were fairly well agreed and both laid the greatest possible stress and emphasis on the question of what was to be done with pauper children, both approving the segregation, rather than the aggregation of children in workhouses. He wondered whether the bad old days of "Bumbledom" had disappeared for ever. "Bumbledom" used to be the personification of all that was horrible and high-handed in the treatment of workhouse children. From his small experience of workhouses he could testify that he had seen nothing whatever of the old cruel spirit of "Bumbledom" which Charles Dickens had drawn so admirably The treatment of children was at least more reasonable, more humane and logical than it used to be, but at the same time that did not relieve them of great responsibility of the continued aggregation of a certain number of children—though a small number—in our workhouses. It surely would be infinitely better if those children were either boarded out in cottage homes, or at any rate allowed to

associate with other children, who after all were their equals, in the various public schools; and, thirdly, it would be infinitely desirable to induce, by every means in their power, those children to emigrate to Colonies and Dependencies where they would open up a new life and do better for themselves.

With regard to the relief of the deserving poor—those who had failed in life's battle, the blind, the halt, and the maimed—surely it was only common-sense and humanity that they should as far as possible alleviate their lot, and separate one class from the other. That was strongly recommended by the Commissioners and he was sure that all humanely minded people would agree with them.

There was a great opportunity for reform in the treatment of able-bodied paupers. Those of them who had watched this class at work would, he was sure, agree with him that it was a most unsatisfactory thing to see. If they lifted a shovel they seemed to take almost a minute to lift it and then, as soon as the back of the labour master was turned, they ceased work and chatted, they moved at about half the pace of an ordinary man, and altogether it was a most depressing spectacle to watch a gang of labourers in the labour yard or digging on a labour farm. Could they not take a leaf out of the books of their neighbours and follow some modification of the Swiss, Belgian, or German system of labour colonies. To these colonies the able-bodied poor, who could not or would not find work, could be drafted and rewarded according to the amount of ability and industry they showed. He would suggest that they should start at the bottom of the ladder with hard labour, until they gradually began to gain self-respect and worked their way up, and then they should be rewarded by little kind-

nesses, privileges, and rewards for their toil until they emerged from the institution able and willing to take any job that was offered to them.

With regard to the undeserving class—the truly "work-shy" drunken wastrel, the loafer that infested our streets and roads, very severe penal measures should be put in force. It was a stain on what we were pleased to call our civilisation to allow those social parasites to parade our streets and roads, a menace and terror to many households, and to take no steps to reform them or lock them up or keep them in a place of safety until they reformed themselves.

There had been considerable discussion centred round a very simple proposal of the Majority Commissioners, a mere substitution of words, namely, that what had hitherto been called Poor Law Relief should be described in future as Public Assistance. For his own part he failed to see any adequate reason for that change. "A rose by any other name would smell as "sweet." Surely if assistance were administered in future, as it had been in the past, from the pockets of the ratepayers by officials paid for that purpose, it mattered little to the recipients whether it were called Public Assistance or Poor Relief. If, as he believed, the object was to take away to some extent the stigma of receiving poor relief he thought it was almost a pity that that should be attempted. He did not believe in making things too easy or too pleasant for the pauper. The relief came from the pockets of very hard-working people, the ratepayers, and the interests of ratepayers must be studied as well as those of the recipients, and if there were a stigma in workhouse relief he thought they ought to retain that distinct stigma.

As to the constitution of the new body recommended,

it was suggested, as they knew, that it should be partly elective, and should add to its numbers by a system of co-option. He quite agreed with Mr. Dickson when he said that nowadays it would surely be impossible to persuade the people of this country to submit to a tax for relief without adequate representation. Bodies largely composed of people who were not directly elected were perhaps somewhat careless in spending public money. He served many years ago on a large School Board. They perhaps remembered the method of election of the School Board in those days—it was quite different to-day. Then they simply issued their precept for hundreds of thousands, and the money was collected. The School Board were responsible for administering it, but they did not feel their responsibility to the ratepayers as the councillors did to-day. He thought the principle was unsound, and he should therefore be sorry to see the system of co-option introduced. If people could not stand the test of election he thought they should not have a place upon any public authority, whether as local guardians or in any other capacity.

Then on the question of the Minority Report versus the Majority Report, he thought perhaps there was far too much capital made by one side as to the comparative merits of the one report as against the other. Mr. Dickson said that the Minority Report was frankly socialistic. He must say that he did not entirely agree with him on that point. Socialism was, of course, a thing that it was exceedingly difficult to define. He quite agreed that the tendency of many of the recommendations of the Minority Report was socialistic, but he also agreed with the admirable speech of Mr. Balfour last Friday, when he said as far as he could see there was nothing distinctly socialistic in the recommendations

of the Commissioners. But whether they were socialistic or not, surely it was their duty to consider any proposal and judge it on its merits. If there were any proposal in the Minority Report better worthy of consideration than a corresponding one in the Majority Report, by all means let them consider it.

If they would compare the two Reports they would find that they were both in agreement on the more important points, and that those on which they differed were of less moment. There was a great concensus of opinion on the part of both, and it was to those points where both sides agreed that he thought the legislation of the future would be directed. They had plenty of time to consider those Reports, for he did not think there was the slightest chance, in the present state of business, of any change being attempted by this or any succeeding Government for some time to come. But the matter was worthy of close attention and the keenest discussion, and he was delighted to know that the Surveyors' Institution had taken the matter up, for it was a matter which, though primarily perhaps not affecting them very closely as surveyors, affected them as individual members of the community, and, if he might say so, it was an exceedingly suitable subject to be ventilated in that hall by professional men.

He had the greatest possible pleasure in proposing a hearty vote of thanks to Mr. Dickson for his able, fair, and illuminating summary of this important question. The difficulty in speaking upon it was to know whether one ought to comment upon Mr. Dickson's Paper or to launch out on the subject of which it was a summary. There was however ample scope for discussion, and he hoped they should spend a profitable evening in discussing the problem, and that they might thus contribute their

measure of assistance in the solution of the great problem underlying it.

Mr. S. H. Cowper Coles (Member of Council) said he rose with great pleasure to second the vote of thanks to Mr. Dickson for his excellent Paper. He thought perhaps that they did not all quite realise how very much The Surveyors' Institution, and especially the land agency branch of that Institution, was brought into contact with the Poor Law in both rural and urban districts.

As a member of a Board of Guardians for twenty years, and as a County Councillor, he knew some of the difficulties that faced them, and although of course he spoke more from the rural and agricultural interest, he had had some experience in towns, and he had come to the conclusion that very little alteration was required in the actual Poor Law. Mr. Dickson had set out very carefully from those twelve volumes the heads of the Majority and Minority Reports, and he agreed with much of his criticism, but there were three distinct heads of Poor Law which were apt to be jumbled up together in the minds of those who had not had actual experience of Poor Law administration, for instance, the wastrel or tramp nuisance, referred to by Mr. Perkins, should be looked upon as an absolutely separate department and not bought into the actual Poor Law. It needed entirely separate administration. Then again, the question of the genuine unemployed was really outside the Poor Law, and should be dealt with in a different way, the matter being one which must depend greatly on the fluctuations of the industry of the country.

The real Poor Law was the relief they were bound to give to the working man in distress, and of such cases

there had been many of late. Take a winter like the past; the relieving officer perhaps reported to the Board of Guardians a man of 35, probably married with five children, and the whole household down with fever, the man had been working short hours on account of depression of trade; the officer was absolutely bound to give that man medical relief, and the man from no fault of his own but on account of the depression of the trade of the country and his misfortune in having to seek medical relief was branded as a pauper for the rest of his days in that neighbourhood. It was necessary that such a state of things should be altered. Many a man was genuinely brought to distress by circumstances of that sort, and it was important that he should speedily be relieved and the nation should not put any stigma upon him for it.

It had been quite refreshing to hear Mr. Asquith and Mr. Balfour agree last Friday on the question of how this Poor Law question should be dealt with. The subject required a great deal of consideration, and presented many difficulties. Modern legislation in all these matters had dealt in the same way with the towns as rural districts. If that continued and they passed the same laws and the same regulations for both rural and town districts, he was sure they would be a failure.

There was much that might be deleted from Acts, like the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Act of last Session, that were just coming into force and from Acts of recent date which were already in force. In his own neighbourhood they had filled the workhouses with men during the last three winters, and it was no doubt, as they said, through their age, the Employers' Liability Act making employers shy about engaging men above a certain age. So much was this the case that extra accommodation had had to be made on account of the

men coming in. At the present moment also the Old Age Pension Act was not doing what it would no doubt do for the Poor Law in the future.

In the discussions that had taken place on the Housing Town Planning, &c., Act, its effect on country estates with regard to the Poor Law had been overlooked. We were in future to have medical officers whose first business was to see to the housing throughout the county. He had to deal with the housing of the poor at the present time, and he did not think it was quite realised in some of the agricultural districts how many houses, which up to the present had escaped, might be closed by the medical officer under that Act, for he had now much more drastic powers than under any previous Act. In that way it was going to bring surveyors in very close touch with the Poor Law. They would now have to find accommodation for labourers and workpeople who had been able to live in houses which, although not quite according to regulations, had satisfied them, but which under the present Act might be closed, with the result that their occupants unless provided for would drift into the Poor Law.

It should also be remembered that in agricultural and rural districts Poor Law guardians and district councils were generally the same bodies, and he thought a great deal could be done by the Local Government Board with the powers they already possessed if they would only insist on the board of guardians appointing an officer qualified to carry out the work. At present it seemed not to matter who was appointed. If the clerk's post were vacant it was often given to a young solicitor just starting, who had no knowledge of the Poor Law, while the appointment of nuisance inspector was often given to a farmer's son who had failed in

everything else, and he was sorry to say he had known a district surveyor with the same qualifications. On the other hand, he knew one district where the guardians had appointed the very best surveyor they could get to take up the appointment; they had increased his salary, their argument being that if they got a good surveyor, who knew his work, they not only relieved the district but they also relieved the work of the guardians, for he would know what the requirements really were, and the sanitary state of the district would be improved by proper means instead of notices being served on people without a real understanding of what was required. Although the officer was paid a higher salary the administration of the work was much more satisfactory, because it was carried out by one who was fully qualified for the work. The Poor Law Commissioners themselves suggested that a trained officer should be appointed. Again, the relieving officer appointed in districts was often somebody's friend, such as a draper who had failed, and who was pitchforked into the appointment, and if the Local Government Board would only insist that proper officers should be appointed through the country they would do a great deal to improve the administration of the Poor Law.

He did hope that any of them who had any influence in the matter would impress upon those who had the control of our country that, with five or six Acts already in force or coming into force, they must have time to see how they affected the Poor Law before any drastic measures such as were proposed in the Majority or Minority Reports were taken.

As to the children he thought they could take great comfort in what had been done by the country. He did not think they would now find a board of guardians

which had not for the last ten years put children into cottage homes or provided them with industrial training or sent them to schools and done what they could to help them. It had only been going on for the last ten years, and although it would now continue its results must be for the future. It might not show fruit for another ten or fifteen years, but he thought that the Poor Law children who used to be stamped and brought up as paupers were now brought up as ordinary children of the nation.

He most sincerely thanked Mr. Dickson for his excellent Paper.

Mr. W. Edgar Horne, M.P. (Vice-President), said it had been suggested that the Paper hardly concerned them as surveyors. There was, however, one matter which, although it did not appear in either of the Reports, did concern them, and that was the question of the cost of carrying out the recommendations. Various figures had been suggested, ranging from 3 millions to 18 millions a year, and he thought they must all realise from such figures that it was their duty on behalf of their clients to see on whose shoulders this extra expense was to be laid, whether on the shoulders of the ratepayers or whether the Imperial taxes should bear a large proportion of the whole.

The habitual inhabitant of the workhouse was a very difficult person to cure, or to get rid of, and as practical men it was their duty, realising how impossible it was to tackle the whole question at once, to try to think what could be done by way of prevention. If they could only help the children, and could keep those people who were at present free of the workhouse from going in, they would in time cure the disease. Mr. Cowper Coles had mentioned much which was being

done for the child at the present time, and the small number of children now suffering from the workhouse taint showed that the importance of that was realised. In London there were large schools which had been opened for a good many years now, and which had done good work. More, however, was necessary, and the children ought not only to have a thorough technical business training, but, after they had had their training, there should be work and openings for all.

As a further means of prevention they must find means to help the deserving poor to keep their homes together. The Old Age Pension Act at the present time would to a certain extent help them, and there were those further means that had been shadowed forth, out of which no party capital could be made as both sides were interested in them; Insurance against unemployment, and Insurance against sickness, and Insurance against invalidity. That meant that the man should himself make provision when young, so that when bad times came upon him he would be able to turn to a fund to relieve him from going to the workhouse at all. Of course those funds would have to be helped by the State, but that could be done at much smaller cost than would be the case if, through his improvidence, he had been brought to such a condition that the State had to keep him in his old age.

He had always been struck by the enormous amount of good work done by the guardians, and the immense amount of time given by them to their work, and he could not help thinking with Mr. Dickson that if a certain number of co-opted members were added to them they would be spared the scandals which in a few cases had arisen.

With regard to the substitution of the name "Public

"Assistance" for Poor Law relief, he saw little use in it, and agreed with Mr. Perkins that the thing remained the same under whatever name the help might be given.

Mr. G. L. PEPLER (Fellow) said they must all agree in thanking Mr. Dickson for his Paper.

He was glad that reference had been made to Mr. Balfour's speech of Friday last in which he condemned the system of political "labels," especially with reference to classing the Minority Report as socialistic.

Both reports condemned the present system, and the main difference between them appeared to him to be whether we were to continue to have a separate body to deal with the matter—a body moreover not directly elected—or whether we were to hand the matter over to the existing councils.

The latter system would make for a simpler adjustment, and would thus to a great extent meet Dr. Downe's objection, also in his (the speaker's) opinion it would make for greater efficiency as the Municipalities were already concerned in prevention rather than cure.

The objection had been raised that councils were already overworked; that might possibly be got over if they had, as on the Continent, elected burgomasters who were elected for a term of years, but were paid and gave up their whole time to the work. No one would accuse the German upper class of being socialistic, yet this was their policy!

It seemed to him that the Minority Report insisted on the searching out and destruction of the disease in its early stages instead of waiting till it had taken deep root. Most of them objected to municipal trading, but they did not object to a municipality endeavouring to prevent disease. A municipal officer of health did not

wait till the whole town had typhoid before taking action, but strove to stamp it out on its first appearance by isolation, and surely excessive poverty was as much a disease as typhoid, and should be treated in the early stage. In that respect the Minority Report was strong.

Reference had been made to Switzerland, which he considered had an admirable system. The State recognised a man's right to work. If he would not work he was given penal servitude, and it was said that it was such very unpleasant penal servitude that he did not like the experience. We might well copy Switzerland in that respect. If we recognised the right to help, we ought also to see that we got efficient services from the men we helped.

Several speakers had referred to the proposed alteration of the name from Poor Relief to "Public Assistance," and had suggested that it was inexpedient, and that some stigma was necessary, but surely if the matter were dealt with scientifically, and the cases were sought out and helped before they were broken down there ought to be no public stigma, especially as the initiative would then be taken by the community and not by the recipients.

Mr. A. E. Baylis (Professional Associate) said he joined with Mr. Dickson in saying how much the whole country was indebted to the Commissioners for the enormous amount of work they had put into their enquiry, and he also desired to join in the expression of thanks to Mr. Dickson himself. They were also indebted to The National Committee to Promote the Break-up of the Poor Law for having kept the matter before the public, thus preventing it suffering the usual fate of Royal Commission Reports, which was to be

dropped into departmental pigeon-holes. This document appeared to be too valuable for such a fate.

One of the results of the Commission was to show how very little statistical evidence they had as to the effect of guardians' work, and also as to what was likely to be the future effect of the expenditure they made. The outstanding fact revealed by the special count taken for the Commission for one year was that, excluding lunatics in asylums and casuals, nearly $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions of people were sufficiently destitute to have recourse to poor relief, in spite of the known horror that most of the poor had to the Poor Law, or anything connected with "the House." It would, of course, be quite easy to alter the statistical evidence, and at any time to reduce the number of paupers by the simple expedient of making the Poor Law more deterrent; but it should not be forgotten that a penal Poor Law was sure to be undermined by voluntary agencies working without any control whatever.

It was necessary from the point of view of social economics that the treatment of poverty should be considered more from the point of view of preventive measures, to prevent the fearful waste that now took place. He would not go into the composition of the Poor Law authority except to say that the new authority proposed by the Majority Report, which might conceivably contain not a single member who had stood the test of election, took the control out of the hands of the public entirely. The Public Assistance Authority then delegated to the Public Assistance Committee (composed of persons nominated partly by district councils and partly by a voluntary aid committee) the work of dealing with applications, investigating and supervising cases, and such other duties as they thought fit. All this was proposed in spite of the fact referred

to by Mr. Dickson, that the Local Government Act, 1894, abolished *ex officio* and nominated guardians as unsatisfactory. He therefore agreed with Mr. Dickson in deprecating the setting up of so unrepresentative a body as that recommended in the Majority Report.

With regard to the question of areas, the Minority Report proposal of transferring the work of the guardians to committees of the present county and county borough councils got over to a certain extent the difficulties suggested by the Memoranda of Dr. Downes and Mr. Charles Booth. They required of course for all local government purposes, areas, to quote Mr. Booth, "with populations socially interconnected and indus- "trially interdependent," and if the counties and county boroughs were considered to fulfil this condition for all purposes other than "assistance," then the adjustment having once been made, on the transfer of the work to the councils, there would be no further adjustments of purely Poor Law properties and liabilities; but future adjustments on change of administrative areas would be made for the whole of the local government work of which the existing Poor Law formed but part—one operation thus covering the whole ground. All the advantages of grouping, simplicity of adjustment and automatic provision for the future would be obtained, together with full control by the ratepayers instead of the work being delegated as suggested in the Majority Report to a hybrid and uncontrolled authority, acting under orders from the Local Government Board.

The problem of the unemployed was perhaps the greatest with which the Commission had to deal, and it was everything to the good to find it recognised that the vital changes in industrial organisation and development, and in the methods of production and greater specialisation which had accompanied mechanical pro-

gress, had necessitated the abandonment of the old idea that if a man wanted work he could always get it. Casual labour was perhaps the most serious feature of the problem, and one which seemed almost inherent in the building industry, for in addition to the frequent "leakage" between "jobs," the building operative had to face weather conditions. He had recently made an investigation of what time was lost in building operations through bad weather in this country, and from the statistics for a hundred jobs ranging from half a thousand to half a million sterling in value distributed throughout the country, without entering into details, he found it amounted to 9·5 per cent. of the time allowance for the contracts. As most of this loss would occur in the early stages of the work they would be well within the mark in saying that with regard to the "carcase trades" 15 per cent., or one day a week, would represent that loss in this country. The time lost owing to the casualness of the occupation would probably be another 15 per cent. Their own profession, indeed, was not quite free from this taint, especially on the "quantity" side, and he sometimes thought it must be with reference to this phase of the profession that Macbeth exclaimed that Duncan's virtues:

> "Will plead like angels, trumpet-tongu'd against
> The deep damnation of his *taking-off*."

The figures recently published regarding the first six weeks' working of the Labour Exchanges were important. They showed two things. One was that a quarter of a million able-bodied men were unable to find work, and the other that out of the 32,500 places offered 12,600 could not be filled owing to lack of proper workers. That showed a serious maladjustment between supply and demand, and it also showed the urgent need of the maintenance and training scheme recommended by the

Minority Report in order that a man's enforced idleness might be used to improve his industrial efficiency, instead of as now, allowing him to deteriorate and finally to become unemployable. If a man were left without regular work he practically became a tramp, and the figures he had quoted showed the vital necessity of dealing with the question before destitution set in.

It was stated that emigration was not sufficiently used. He did not think much need be said about it, but as a matter of fact emigration could do nothing of the kind suggested. If emigration could solve the problem surely Ireland would offer an example, for she had emigrated half her population in the last century! It always seemed to be forgotten that while an emigrant took away with him his productive capacity he also took away his consumptive capacity, and so lessened the demand as well as supply.

Then as to "settlement" disputes, their cost worked out at about £8 per person removed to another area—sufficient to provide him in labour for a considerable time.

The public health authority's attitude towards disease was very different to that of the Poor Law medical officers' attitude. The former safeguarded the community by dealing with disease in its early stage. There were no known cases of consumption being cured after getting to the Poor Law authorities, for the simple reason that they never got there till they were too far gone to be subject to treatment.

The only other remark he would make was as to the cost, and he felt that a nation which could afford to increase its navy estimates by five millions could well afford to spend a similar sum in an effort to abolish destitution.

Such expenditure would be a magnificent investment,

it would increase the productive power of the people to an enormous extent, and so do good to the country itself, while the members of that Institution, and others, such as architects and engineers, would benefit very considerably, for it opened up a magnificent prospect if that matter were properly dealt with, as any increase in the wealth-producing power of the community must react on the constructive professions.

The Vote of Thanks having been put to the Meeting, and carried unanimously—

Mr. DICKSON, in reply, thanked his old friend Mr. Frank Perkins and Mr. Cowper Coles for the kind way in which they had proposed and seconded the Vote of Thanks to him for his Paper and for the way in which his fellow Members had received it.

There hardly seemed much to answer in the criticisms they had made. Mr. Pepler made a remark about the areas. In his own district there was a county borough which was part of a much larger union, and if the scheme of the Commissioners were carried out there, they would have a part greater than the whole, because if the county borough were a Public Assistance Authority the union would form part of the Public Assistance Committee. He thought, from the reasons given by Dr. Downes, that the scheme foreshadowed by the Commissioners introduced so many difficulties that the suggestion by Mr. Booth in favour of an amalgamation of different unions had the greater advantage.

One thing he would say about the guardians—although they had a very able guardian present in the person of Mr. Cowper Coles—he confessed he was somewhat surprised that no one had taken up the cudgels on their behalf. He was afraid that, owing to the fact that

there had been some black sheep among the guardians, their delinquencies had loomed too largely in the Report to the detriment of the capable workers who for so many years had devoted their best energies to the task they had undertaken.

Then again, as to the children. He agreed with what the previous speakers had said that if they were to see any real improvement they must try and begin with the children, but here again although much had been done since the days of Oliver Twist much remained to be done. He knew of many cases in which children had been boarded out with most excellent results and with a very small percentage of failures. Mr Burns in his speech in the House of Commons, on 8th April, on Sir R. Price's Bill, referred to the Metropolitan Poor Law Schools and the excellence of the training given in them, stating that out of the 12,732 children who had passed through them in the last ten years only fifty-five were returned by employers to whom they were sent—an eloquent testimony to the character of the training now given in these schools. But, as Mr. Burns proceeded to say, it was unfortunate there was no power of preventing the fine boys and girls who had been educated for eight or nine years in a good Poor Law school or brought up in a healthy cottage home, being returned to the slums and probably to theft and degradation, and that it was in this direction he would like to see a change made.

Allusion had been made to the increased expenditure during the last sixty years, but some of this increase could only be considered as money well spent. Mr. Burns in his speech, to which allusion had just been made, stated that in 1849 there were only 200 paid professional nurses in the whole of the Poor Law Service of England and Wales, and he was afraid that some of these must have been of the Mrs. Gamp type, and that these 200

nurses had now been expanded into 6,500 paid professional nurses unequalled in many outside institutions and excelled by few.

In conclusion, Mr. Dickson again thanked the Members for the kind reception they had given to his Paper.

The PRESIDENT said that they had had a most interesting discussion on a most important matter, and Mr. Dickson had given them a Paper which would well repay them for careful study. It was full of suggestions and it gathered together, as the proposer and seconder of the Vote of Thanks had said, the materials contained in the great Report in a concise form.

He agreed with previous speakers that prevention was better than cure, and that the care of the children was of first importance. He should like to see the name Workhouse altered. He believed it originally arose from those wastrels who would not do any work, and they were sent to the workhouse to be made to work, and it was a great hardship that that name should be employed in the case of the old and infirm. He should like to see the term altered to the home for the old and infirm. The old people did not want to go to the workhouse, and they struggled on longer than they need do rather than go there, and it was cruel to put any stigma upon them.

He thanked Mr. Dickson again most sincerely for his able Paper.

The Meeting then closed.

Paper 365.
No. 555.

ROAD CONSTRUCTION AND MAINTENANCE.

By R. F. GRANTHAM, M.Inst.C.E.
(Associate).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, 25th April*, 1910.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

The subjects of Road Construction and Maintenance were very fully dealt with in 1884 and in 1888 in Papers read at this Institution by Mr. A. J. Burrows and Mr. W. Hewitt.

When one sees the condition of the roads in the country at the present time, and hears the complaints about them, and then looks back to Mr. Arthur Young's description of their state in his "Six Months' Tour," published in 1770, one is amazed at what people in those days had to put up with. He wrote:—

"*To Wigan, Turnpike.* I know not in the "whole range of language terms sufficiently expressive "to describe this infernal road. Let me most seriously "caution all travellers who may accidentally propose to "travel this terrible country to avoid it as they would "the devil, for a thousand to one they break their necks "or their limbs by overthrows or breakings-down.

Note.—This Paper was placed in the hands of the Secretary of The Institution in January last. I feel it incumbent upon me to state this, as on 29th March an article, entitled "Road Foundations," appeared in *The Times*, which coincided so closely with the views expressed in the Paper that I must absolve myself from a possible charge of plagiarism.

"They will meet ruts four feet deep and floating with "mud only from a wet summer; what therefore must it "be after a winter! The only mending it receives is "tumbling in some loose stones which serve no other "purpose than jolting a carriage in the most intolerable "manner."

"*To Warrington, Turnpike.* This is a paved road, "most infamously bad; any person would imagine the "people of the country had made it with a view to "immediate destruction."

"*From Dunholm to Knutsford, Turnpike.*—It is "impossible to describe these infernal roads in terms "adequate to their deserts, &c., &c."

One is not quite certain that Mr. Young's apprehension as to some of the risks people ran in those days would not apply to the roads now although the dangers arise from quite a different source.

Coming back to the present day, it will be remembered that in 1896 roads were thrown open to mechanically propelled vehicles, and since that time the development and use of motor cars have revived interest in the method of making roads and have presented new problems for their maintenance and improvement.

In considering the subject of construction it may be well to go back for a moment to what may be called first principles, viz., those methods to which Mr. Hewitt referred which were introduced by Telford and Macadam. Telford specified for the Shrewsbury and Holyhead Road a foundation of hand-pitched stones, 6 to 8 inches deep, set on edge with their broad edges downwards, the interstices to be filled up with stone chips, the road to be made 30 feet wide, with a fall of 6 inches from the centre to the side channels. Care was taken to provide cross drains at the rate of nine to a mile.

The foundation was coated with hard stones broken to a $2\frac{1}{2}$-inch ring and spread 6 inches in depth in two layers of 4 inches and 2 inches respectively.

Macadam was satisfied with 10 inches of broken stone for the thickness of the crust, provided that the subsoil were thoroughly drained.

It may be remarked here that the crust of the old Roman roads was about 3 feet thick.

It is scarcely necessary to say that the success which attended Telford's method was due to the solid foundation and the selection of hard stone for the top metalling, and it will be conceded, particularly in these days of heavy and rapidly moving traffic, that unless a road has a good foundation the cost of keeping it in repair is seriously increased.

This method of building a foundation, introduced by Telford, obtains in the present day in some districts for making new roads where stone is easily procurable, but where stone has to be brought from long distances the method would be impracticable on the score of expense.

The general modern practice of making new roads is first to form the surface and then steam-roll it. If in clay or wet subsoil a layer of bushes or bavins is then spread, and on that a thickness of 12 to 15 inches of broken stone, or chalk, or broken bricks, or other hard rough material are laid, and the surface of these materials is then steam-rolled. A coat of 3 inches of gravel or flint is then spread and steam-rolled, and another coat of 3 inches of either flint, broken granite, whinstone, or basalt is then added, each layer being well steam-rolled, and finally a blending of fine gravel or granite chippings is slopped in with water and again rolled. The convexity of such roads is generally 1 in 24. Limestones and Kentish ragstone do not make good

roads, as they readily grind into dust in summer and mud in winter.

If the surface of the road is to be paved, a similar foundation is formed, but upon that Portland cement concrete, 6 inches or 9 inches thick, is spread, and granite setts or wood blocks 5 inches deep, or asphalte 2 inches thick, are laid. In roads so paved the usual allowance for convexity is 1 in 36 to 1 in 40.

The cost of such roads is approximately—

	Per square yard. s.	d.
With a flint surface . . .	3	9
With a broken granite surface .	4	7
If paved with granite setts . .	16	9
If paved with wood blocks . .	14	9
If paved with asphalte . .	15	6

The granite setts must be "fed" with sand as a cushion on the concrete and grouted in, and for the reception of the wood blocks and asphalte the surface of the concrete is floated.

Many systems of laying wood blocks have been tried, one of the earlier plans being to lay boards and another to lay tarred felt on which to set the blocks. Jarrah and Karri wood have been used for the materials of the blocks, but they have been found too hard. The ordinary practice now is to use creosoted deal blocks 5 inches deep, and sometimes to dip them in a mixture of bitumen and pitch, filling in the joints and then brushing the surface, and sometimes to use cement grout, and sprinkle the surface of the road with sand and grit.

In view of the heavy and fast moving traffic on the roads in the country at the present time, can it be said that they come up to such standards of thickness of foundation and metalling?

The author had occasion to open some holes at considerable intervals in the length of a main road not many miles from London where the traffic was very heavy, and he found that the entire crust measured in depth—

Hole No. 1, $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches.
„ 2, 8 „
„ 3, $8\frac{1}{2}$ „

At the time the surface of another part of the same road was being improved by the addition of about 2 or 3 inches of broken Guernsey granite blended with fine sifted gravel and watered and steam-rolled. The addition, however, of a few inches of granite to a road that had no good foundation could not make a lasting improvement. Along this same road traction engines, weighing 13 tons and drawing 3 wagons each loaded up to 8 tons, as well as motor cars at high rates of speed, were constantly passing.

In another county, not far from London, it is well known that in many of the roads the total crust is not more than 6 inches thick.

Mr. Read, the city surveyor of Gloucester, at a meeting of a conference of road engineers and road users in June, 1907, said: "The metalling of the road " was very important, but of secondary importance to " that of foundation. Hundreds of miles of old roads " consisted of nothing more than 3 inches or 4 inches of " metalling placed on a natural foundation, which of " course varied in short distances again and again."

In fact, many of the roads have grown from being mere cart tracks, by the addition first of stones loosely thrown in, and then of some additional layers, until some sort of surface has been prepared. But they never have been properly made in the way in which it is now understood roads should be made, and they are therefore

unfit for heavy traffic, especially for extraordinary traffic.

It probably would not be untrue to say that the greater part of the roads in this country have no greater thickness of crust than is quoted above.

We thus get to the root of the complaints so frequently heard of late years of the damage done by the increasing weight and volume of traffic, particularly by traction engines and the heavily laden wagons they draw, and of the consequent largely increased cost of repairs. Nevertheless, a thickness of crust of 8 to 10 inches on the natural surface may be justified by the nature of the soil or rock through which the road passes.

The Report from the Select Committee in 1896 on "Traction Engines on Roads" shows how extensive was the damage done by traction engines and particularly by extraordinary traffic. In the Report one of the objections to traction engine traffic referred to was the burdens inflicted on the ratepayers by the damage done to the roads, and it was contended by some of the witnesses that country as well as town roads should be kept up to a standard sufficiently strong to bear the heaviest class of traffic. The representatives of the local bodies expressed themselves willing to improve the roads, but inasmuch as the work would largely increase the rates they stipulated for a substantial contribution from the engine owners. The Committee considered that as the engine owners were in a small minority it would not be just or practicable to throw such a burden on the ratepayers as would be involved in a general improvement of the roads for the sake of traffic that was quite exceptional, but that, except where agreements were made between the road authorities and the owners or users of locomotives, the authorities must rely on the extraordinary traffic clause for recovering the cost of damage done.

Since the date of the Report the numbers of traction engines have largely increased, and the speed which at that time was restricted to four miles per hour is now only limited to the speed which the weight of the engine and the load behind permit. In addition to that traffic heavy motor wagons and railway motor-buses are free to travel on the roads at the best speed they can make subject to the legal limit.

The witnesses before that Committee spoke as to the difficulty of proving and assessing the damage resulting from "extraordinary traffic," and indeed of defining it.

In practice, district councils require first of all a sufficient foundation for roads made in their districts and before any road is taken over by a council the foundation is examined and overhauled, and a thickness of metalling of at least 6 inches is required and must be steam-rolled.

It cannot be questioned that a good foundation to a road saves much annual expenditure in repairs to the surface, but it would be impracticable to break up the surfaces and put in foundations in great lengths of those roads which are now without them within any given time owing to the great initial expenditure and consequent burden upon the ratepayers. No doubt in the widening and diversion of roads under the Development and Road Improvements Fund Act good foundations will be made for the new work, and opportunities will arise for remedying the defects in parts of the old roads.

The question which has more particularly engaged public attention lately is the maintenance of the surfaces of roads under the altered conditions created by motor traffic.

The old system of repairing the surfaces was confined to spreading, generally in the autumn, thin layers or

patches of granite or broken stone or flint on those parts of the roads which had become worn, and allowing the traffic to wear down the rough surface of the new materials. By degrees the steam roller came into use, and the worn parts of the surfaces of the roads were pecked up or scarified, the required thickness of material spread on them and rolled, then blinded with chippings or fine gravel slopped in with water and well rolled again.

But owing to the dust raised by motor car traffic and the scouring effect of the steel-shod tires, a great deal more was required to obviate the nuisance in the one case and to protect the surface in the other. The quantity of dust raised increases with the speed of the motor car.

Much has been done by the Roads Improvement Association in investigating the best means to this end and in collecting information as to the best materials to be used and the best method of applying them, and also by the County Councils Association by arranging Conferences at which papers have been read and discussed by many eminent road surveyors and others interested in the subject.

Numerous materials have been applied to roads and tried with more or less success, such as

Tar macadam.	Pulvicide.
Tarvia.	Pulverite.
Clare's patent compo.	Dustabato.
Westrumite.	Crempoid D.
Westrumite No. 2.	Crempoid R.
Sandisize.	Plascom.
Calcium Chloride.	Erminite.
Hahnite.	Tar spraying or painting,
Akonia.	And others.

The basis of most of these materials is tar, and some of them have answered the purpose very well.

An official test under the auspices of the Roads Improvement Association was made of the dust-laying qualities of calcium chloride in the period between May and September, 1909. The chief merit of this substance is its power of absorbing moisture, and thus in dry weather keeping the surface of a road more or less damp and preventing the raising of dust. It was tried both in the wet state and in the dry state as crystals. Fast traffic, however, seems to have raised a good deal of dust on a road so treated, and the test was confined to the summer months. It is doubtful whether it would last more than two months without fresh applications, and no experience was gained of its behaviour in winter.

Spraying or painting with tar either from a machine or by hand, is now generally considered the most efficacious and economical of all the methods so far adopted for preserving the surface. The conditions of its application are that the tar must be boiled until it is ready to boil over. The surface of the road must be thoroughly well swept of all dust before the tar is applied, and the road must be quite dry. The surface of the tar is then sprinkled with sand. One or two sprayings are necessary every year. The advantages of tar spraying are that it protects the surface of the road from scouring, it very largely reduces the raising of dust, and it saves watering.

In the competition organised by the Roads Improvement Association in May, 1907, for the best tar-spreading machine, and the best preparation of tar for road purposes, the judges found that those materials which contained the smallest proportion of tar gave unsatisfactory results, the composition being soon worn off the

road, and raising a dust which might or might not be injurious. Those materials that contained a large proportion of tar proved very satisfactory. In all eight machines for tar-spraying were tested by the judges, who reported favourably upon them all. The advantages of some tar-spraying machines are that they force the tar into the surface of the road and spread it more evenly, and it is more economical in the quantity of tar used than when applied by hand.*

Mr. Rees Jeffreys gives the mileage of roads in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, at 228,438, and the annual expenditure upon them at £15,890,640, or nearly £70 per mile.†

Mr. J. Walker Smith gives the average annual cost expended by county councils on main roads during five years at rather more than £68 per mile; by county boroughs in maintenance of roads and streets at about £153 per mile; by non-county boroughs on main roads and other than main roads at £104 per mile, taking the average of five years in each case.

The cost of tar-spraying, including brushing the road and the sand sprinkled on the tar, has varied from about ¾*d.* to 2*d.* per square yard. Taking the average width of the carriageway at 8 yards, this works out from £44 to £117 per mile. The cost in some districts is said to have been reduced to from £30 to £40 per mile.

The county and borough surveyors have done, and are doing, much in this direction to protect the surfaces of the roads under their charge, and to reduce the nuisance of dust; but it may be asked, are not these methods after all only palliatives very useful in the emergency

* International Road Congress, Paris, 1908.

† Col. Crompton, Dust Problem Statistics, Roads Improvement Association.

that has arisen, but not to be regarded as permanent measures of treating the surfaces ?

The time apparently is coming, if it has not already arrived, when all roads upon which heavy traffic does and is likely to pass over must be made as opportunity offers sufficiently strong (that is, strong in foundation as well as in metalling) to withstand not only heavy but extraordinary traffic. It is work however which must occupy a long time.

In the making of new roads the diversion and widening of main roads under the new Development and Road Improvements Fund Act the standards of thickness of materials already referred to will no doubt be adopted as a minimum, with a surface of a more permanent character in its wearing qualities and in its freedom from dust.

The surfaces of the future must be waterproof and comparatively dustless. Tar macadam or the Gladwell system seem at present to offer the best means of fulfilling these conditions.

In order to lay down tar macadam the existing surface must be broken up to the required depth and the road brought to the proper camber. Stone or slag broken to a 2½-inch ring indurated with tar is then spread about 4 inches thick and rolled to 3 inches. Upon that another layer broken to a 1-inch ring, also mixed with tar, is then spread about 2 inches thick, rolled to 1 inch, and then a still finer layer is added. On completion fine sand or granite chippings is sprinkled over the surface. The road must be perfectly dry during the process.*

The Gladwell system consists in laying a matrix consisting of tar mixed with fine granite chippings or

* *Minutes of Proceedings Inst. Civil Engineers*, vol. clxv. p. 83.

screenings on the foundation of the road, and upon that spreading the ordinary granite metalling, and rolling first with a light roller and then with a heavier one. The surface is then sprinkled with a small quantity of the matrix and rolled again.

Mr. O. E. Winter, borough engineer of Hampstead, has kindly given a description of a very good piece of tar macadam carried out about eighteen months ago in Hampstead. The material used was slag covered with tar 3 inches thick, broken to a 2-inch gauge, and upon slag broken to 1¼-inch gauge was spread 1½ inches thick, the whole being rolled. The cost, including breaking up the previous granite surface, was 3*s.* 6*d.* per yard super. The surface is still in excellent condition, although there is a good deal of traffic.

Gradients.

One in 30 has long been held an inclination steep enough for traffic, at all events for main roads. The original calculations were founded upon the power of a horse to draw a certain load upon a horizontal plane, and certain experiments were made which showed that at a velocity of ten miles per hour the power required to draw a carriage up an incline of 1 in 20 was three times as great as that necessary for drawing it along a level road. But now, steam rollers, traction engines, and motor wagons, and motor cars, can easily surmount not only a gradient of 1 in 20 but much steeper inclinations and, if as seems likely in time, the horse is no longer used for drawing wagons on roads, the tractive power of a horse need no longer enter into the calculation.

The important element to consider in determining the limit of gradient is not so much the difficulty of getting uphill as the danger of going down. On a steep

inclination, with too great a convexity and with a greasy surface, there is considerable risk of dangerous side slipping. Under such conditions 1 in 20 on a main road having a tar macadam or tarred surface should probably be the limit.

Some authorities have advocated a very slight convexity of the surface so as to minimise the risk of side slip, and no doubt the camber should be the least possible on a hard waterproof surface. The convexity on asphalte has hitherto been 1 in 40, and where a road is level or nearly so, it could not be less, so as to drain off the storm water; but on a gradient perhaps it might be modified slightly.

Suggestions have been made that the surface of a road should be inclined slightly inwards towards the centre and that a grating should be fixed in the middle so as to drain off the water, but such an arrangement would lead to practical inconvenience to say nothing of the cost of alteration in existing roads. Gratings frequently become stopped, particularly in the autumn, and it would be extremely inconvenient for men to have to go out into the middle of the road to clear them, particularly if the pipes leading from them were to become choked.

Under the Development and Roads Improvements Fund Act the determination of the widths of new roads and of the extent to which existing roads should be widened will be a task requiring much consideration. The Royal Commission on London Traffic suggested the following classification of streets with their widths between the houses:—

Main avenues . . .	140 feet
First class arterial streets	100 „
Second class streets .	80 „
Third class streets . .	60 „
Fourth class streets . .	40 or 50 feet.

But this Paper is intended to discuss roads in the country rather than those in towns, and the author thinks that the widths of roads should be classified according to the traffic likely to pass over them. Mail coaches in former times kept to the main roads because both the gradients were good and the surfaces were the best kept, but motor cars now travel over roads which at that time would have been looked upon as only by-roads, some of them so narrow that there is scarcely room for two cars to pass each other, and the unfortunate pedestrian or cyclist must take his chance and seek security perhaps in the ditch or on the hedge bank.

In the author's opinion no carriageway of a road frequented by motor cars should be less than 16 feet with a raised footpath of at least 5 feet wide. Main roads where motor cars travel at high speeds should have a carriageway of not less than 36 feet, with a raised footpath of not less than 6 feet, increased in width in the vicinity of towns with an additional width for tram lines. In many villages it would be impracticable to widen the roads, and the only alternative would be to make a road round them if the exigencies of the traffic demanded it. Otherwise the speed must be diminished as it is in many places at the present time.

Now all these limits whatever they may be are imposed upon the community by the advent of motor wagons and cars and the increase in the number of traction engines, and it seems only just and reasonable that their owners should bear a considerable portion of the cost of making the necessary improvements in the roads.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON ROAD MAINTENANCE.

By WILLIAM MENZIES (Fellow).

Read at the Ordinary General Meeting of The Surveyors' Institution *held on Monday, 25th April*, 1910.

Alexander Rose Stenning (President) in the Chair.

When Mr. Grantham asked me to write a Paper on Road Maintenance as a supplement to the latter part of his own Paper, I willingly undertook the task, because as Surveyor to the Egham Urban District Council and the Windsor Rural District Council, I have had many opportunities of studying the subject from a practical point of view. These districts comprise some 6 miles of main and 35 miles of district roads in Egham, and 24 miles of district roads in the Windsor district, at levels varying from 50 o.d. to 300 o.d., and through such varied geological formations as Thames drift gravel, London clay and Bagshot sands.

There are two conditions of a road surface in which it is least capable of carrying the traffic, viz. (a) when too wet, (b) when too dry; for excess or insufficiency of moisture so affects the surface as to bring it into a condition least fitted to withstand wear and tear. In the first instance the surface is so softened as readily to disintegrate, and in time of frost break up; while, where there is insufficiency of moisture, the matrix, by which the metal is held in position, is so dried up that it

loses its holding-down power, thus allowing the stones to be easily shifted from their bed, and so ground to pieces by passing vehicles. Apart from the loss of metal entailed by either too much or too little moisture, the draught in either case is largely increased.

The road surveyor's aim, therefore, is to take all the care he can to combat these two agents tending to destruction, and to maintain his road in such a condition as to have a good surface, no matter what the climatic conditions may be.

To enable him to attain this end there are various matters which engage his attention. Amongst others the selection of metal, the storage, spreading and consolidation of the same, scraping and brooming, drainage, &c. And, so far as he is able to do so legally, or by persuasion, he must ensure free admission of sun and air to the road, where overhanging trees or high hedges are likely to produce injurious effects.

As regards his choice of metal; toughness combined with hardness is generally to be sought for. Hardness alone is not always advantageous. Flint is excessively hard, but its brittleness is against it. Again, cost in the form of freight practically puts a bar under certain conditions upon using, say, granite, where fairly good local materials are available. It may be noted that, so far as the haulage of materials foreign to the locality is concerned, from station or wharf, there is not a great difference whether it be granite or gravel, for a cubic yard of 2-inch Leicester granite weighs about 21 cwt., while a cubic yard of screened pit gravel, broken to the same gauge, weighs about 23 cwt. The difference in cost of wheeling out or carting from the depot and the spreading is not a serious item, but one has to take into consideration the difference in the price of the two

metals delivered at the home station. For instance, take 2-inch Leicester granite, which may be put at 5*s.* 3*d.* per ton at the quarry, as against 2*s.* 3*d.* per ton for Farnham gravel on bank at the Farnham pits in Surrey, and which delivered to any station in the county would not exceed 7*s.* 10*d.* per ton, yet the *minimum* cost per ton of the granite delivered in any part of Surrey may be put at 12*s.* 2*d.*, giving a difference of 4*s.* 4*d.* per ton at the home station. From the maintenance point of view the latter is unquestionably preferable, but suddenly to change a long length of road surface from gravel to granite involves a heavy initial outlay, and a gradual substitution of a better for an inferior metal is, generally speaking, to be commended.

This change should take place when the road requires re-facing, not patching, and here I should like to give a few figures of the cost of the substitution of a granite for a gravel surface in my district. Taking the men's wages at £1 per week, horse hire at 8*s.* per day, 10-ton roller at £1 per day, and granite at the nearest station, two miles from the road, at 12*s.* 6*d.* per ton, the facing of the road with the granite may be put at 1*s.* 3*d.* per yard super, as against a trifle over 8*d.* per yard super, if gravel costing 5*s.* 4*d.* per ton at the station were employed, representing a difference in round figures of £300 in a mile of road averaging 18 feet in width.

With wide country roads, say 25 to 30 feet between the verges, the plan may be adopted of forming the crown, say 15 to 16 feet in width, of the more costly material, while the haunches are made up with the local metal.

Some eminent authorities assert that it is unwise to mix materials, but, so far as my experience goes, good results have been obtained, and roads subjected to a

medium amount of traffic have stood well when a mixture of about three of gravel to one of granite have been used, or where the gravel is particularly clean and more round than angular in shape, four of gravel to one of limestone. In such cases the granite, or limestone, should be of a smaller gauge than if laid alone.

Mechanical means, in the shape of the scarifier attached to the roller, has largely superseded manual labour in loosening the old surface before adding fresh metal, and the face is entirely moved to a depth of a couple of inches or so. In the case of a road with a hard and fairly thick crust, and particularly if somewhat dry, this scarifying process is most advantageous, but for thin crusted roads it is not always advisable; in fact, harm may be done by breaking up a very thin crust, as the water is then freely let into the bed, which is in many country roads little, if any, better than earth. Under such conditions, and with the help of a roller, a coating three to four inches in thickness laid on the unbroken road is about the best treatment, while, where a roller is not used, hand scoring to a shallow depth, and at a time when the surface is softened with rain, should be resorted to, and a thin coating spread on the surface. And here I should like to say a word upon the importance of spreading the metal. The heaps, as shot on the road, should not be merely levelled down, but every stone should be moved in the spreading. By this means much greater uniformity in the texture of the surface is secured.

In re-surfacing, the sooner the roller passes over the newly-spread metal the better. Long lengths of unrolled metal, spread from verge to verge, are not only a source of annoyance to travellers but do much harm to vehicles, while, in the case of unrolled roads, no more

than two chains or so in length should be metalled at one stretch, a break of a similar length being left and the next two chains metalled, and so on, thus giving horses a chance of regaining their wind at the breaks. On wide roads, one side can with advantage be dealt with at a time, provided a roller is used, and so an open road is maintained, the traffic using first the unmetalled part, and then the newly repaired surface as soon as consolidated. In such a case care must be taken where the one side shuts on to the other to secure cohesion.

The steam road roller has made re-surfacing practicable at all times of the year (except when frost or snow prevail) provided there is a good supply of water within easy reach, but without it the re-metalling is restricted to one period, viz., during the winter months (and before Christmas for preference), so that the surface may be consolidated by the traffic, assisted by the winter's rain, before the drying winds of March and heat of summer come on. The roller, however, with water at hand, makes one independent of climatic conditions, and in these circumstances I strongly favour the early spring-time for repairs.

The late autumn and early part of winter are times when the roads require a great deal of attention in the way of clearing, particularly if bordered by trees, and the roadmen can be well employed in this work, as well as attending to drains, water tables, chanelling, &c., till the end of winter, when clearing, &c., is done with, and their time can be devoted to repairs at a period of the year when days are much longer and therefore more metal can be put on and rolled in per diem (where day-work is employed) at little or no extra cost than during the dark days. Again, where the road is to be tarred, the sooner the surface is thus treated after it is

consolidated and dry the better. Where water has to be fetched from brooks or ponds at a considerable distance, then the roller should be used in the autumn, otherwise the cost of drawing sufficient water thoroughly to moisten the binding material is great.

It is all important that there should be plenty of material in stock where repairs, whether in the shape of re-surfacing or patching, are needed. In populous parts the store-yard has to be relied on for the supply of materials, as there are no broad grass verges, as in the case of rural districts, where depots can be made. It may be urged that the storage of materials in the yard necessitates the carting of metal from the station over the very roads for which in a short time it is needed, and then re-carting it again to these particular roads; but a hand-to-mouth system of carting direct from the railway trucks on to the roads often has the disadvantage of an irregular and therefore unreliable supply, at the very time when a constant supply is needed to keep the roadmen and roller fully employed. With plenty in stock advantage can at once be taken of climatic or other conditions best suited for repairs. It is also a ruinous policy to put certain materials on a road straight from the quarry with the quarry water still in them.

In rural parts the depots should be as far as is practicable at short intervals, to save either a long length of cartage, or of "run" when wheeled out. When the depots are at frequent intervals, I have a good deal of the wheeling-out done by piecework, and three men filling and wheeling at $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ per ton keep a 10-ton roller going, with one man spreading, two regulating, sanding, and brooming the surface, &c., the amount wheeled out generally averaging 33 tons a day.

For patching only it is advisable to use a similar class of metal to that already forming the surface. The "life" of the surface can be prolonged to a very considerable extent by judicious patching, and a stitch in time will save many a nine, if the roadman has at hand the wherewithal to stitch, and applies the stitching process at the right moment. Hence the surveyor should see that a supply of materials suited for such work is within easy reach. The "lengthman" system here shows to advantage, for the man who all the year round has a certain length of road to attend to gets to know the weakest places, and can without loss of time, and often at the critical moment, do the required patching. The "lengthmen" should be picked and reliable men, for they are often in districts distant from headquarters, and must therefore be trusted to do the right thing at the right moment. A "lengthman" who can be so trusted is a valuable servant, not only to the surveyor, but the community in general.

At one time, and not long since, at any rate in my part of the country and I believe elsewhere, it was customary to employ aged paupers on the roads. It was "the House in the winter, the roads in the summer." I am hoping, for the sake of the roads, that this practice has practically, if not entirely, died out. The proper, and at the same time economical maintenance of highways, no matter what time of year, can best be secured by employing men skilled in that particular class of work, who can be relied upon to be at their post and attending to their duties, but I am afraid that with some people there is still an idea that roadwork is of such a nature that so-and-so, who is out of a job, can be employed thereat, no matter what his previous employment may have been.

To return to the patching; the materials used should be of a smaller gauge than those employed in re-facing the surface; they should be spread in a thin coating, and special care must be taken in the case of pot-holes, otherwise a hump is formed, and two new pot-holes are made by the traffic where only one existed, viz., one on the running-on and the other on the running-off side of the hump.

The ever-increasing motor traffic is trying roads severely, and it will be seen on examining a surface subjected to much of this class of traffic that, in the case where a hard material such as granite is used, a series of these pot-holes is formed, while, where a softer material is employed, two parallel ruts are generally produced. With continuous wet weather it is surprising how rapidly these pot-holes and ruts are formed, and, when once started, they quickly go from bad to worse. To patch the former, the metal immediately around the cavity should be loosened with the pick before new metal is put on, and a little "blinding" is needed, while in the case of ruts the loosening is seldom required, but the new metal should be dribbled along the furrow. In both cases the roadman must be on the alert to see that any of the new metal disturbed by passing traffic—motor traffic in particular—is swept or shovelled back into its proper place.

The rotary horse-broom is an excellent device for clearing roads of mud, and it is found that a 6-foot broom will sweep a much greater surface in an hour than a man can scrape in a day. Through the winter months the use of the horse-broom should not be stinted, and it does its work best when the mud is in a fluid state; but caution should be exercised in employing it in the early spring, or the very material which later

on is wanted to hold the stones in their places may be removed.

Much harm is often done by the opening of trenches for gas, water, or other services, and friction between the local authority and those who open the road arises. In one case I have an arrangement, which has been found to work fairly well, by which a gas company pays the following sums for the making good of the surface by the local authority :—

Flint roads, 5*d.* per lineal yard of trench not exceeding 18 inches wide.

Granite roads, 9*d.* per lineal yard of trench not exceeding 18 inches wide.

Concrete paving, 1*s.* 6*d.* per lineal yard of trench not exceeding 18 inches wide.

Tar paving, 1*s.* 3*d.* per lineal yard of trench not exceeding 18 inches wide.

Slab paving, 1*s.* 9*d.* per lineal yard of trench not exceeding 18 inches wide.

Relaying kerb with concrete, 1*s.* 6*d.* per yard run.

Relaying kerb without concrete, 6*d.* per yard run.

Relaying sett paving or channel with concrete, 5*s.* per super yard.

Relaying tarred macadam, 3*s.* per super yard.

Prior to the advent of the motor car the discomfort caused by the raising of dust by passing vehicles was not seriously talked of, but ever-increasing complaints are now made of the "dust nuisance" by the public generally, while owners of house property alongside roads largely used by motors find the letting is affected by the clouds of dust that are raised. Until the last few years the water-cart was the palliative in populous parts with macadamised roads and a moderate appli-

cation of water was a saving to the road as well as a dust preventer; but to keep down the dust now by watering, when there is no protective covering to the surface, is a costly undertaking, for it means burning the candle at both ends, inasmuch as the surface has to be watered to excess and is thus weakened, while the watering bill becomes a heavy item of expense.

Mr. Grantham has referred to the various methods tried in recent years with a view to deal with the dust nuisance, and I should like to add some remarks as regards the tar treatment, with which I am most conversant. I have found it to be a great palliative, a very good preservative of the surface, and at the same time it lessens the noise of traffic, horse-drawn in particular.

The surface to be tarred should be in excellent order, and better results are obtained on a hard road, such as granite, than on a soft one, such as gravel.

If the surface be hand painted, much time is saved by having two boilers, as one can be heating the tar while the other is being drawn from. The work is therefore much accelerated—this is a very important point—as in this climate the changes are rapid, and for the application of tar a bone-dry road is almost essential, Time should not be wasted when the surface is once dry. Wherever possible one side should be treated at a time. and an ample supply of sharp grit or chippings for covering the newly-tarred surface should be close at hand, this sanding operation following up the tarring as closely as possible, whether done by mechanical means or hand labour.

The grit should be perfectly free from all clay or earthy matter, and I have found a gauge of $\frac{5}{8}$ inch gives the best results. Fine sand is not so good. With an

open and well drained road some little trouble arises with the tarred surface during lengthened periods of winter's rain, but where shut in by trees or otherwise and there is an excess of moisture the passing traffic churns up the face into a most objectionable black mud very difficult of removal, which sticks fast to and damages the varnish of vehicles. During dry weather in populous parts constant scavenging is necessary, as horse droppings dry very rapidly on the tarred surface and are swirled on to the footways and into the shops, &c., by passing motors.

The "life" of a road when tarred is greatly prolonged. I have carefully watched two lengths of my roads, the one having a granite and the other a flint surface, both of which were tarred in 1907, the process being repeated annually. These surfaces are subjected to heavy traffic, and I have come to the conclusion that between 1907 and now a saving of something like 9d. per yard super on the granite and 6d. per yard super on the flint road has been effected.

The cost of maintenance of different roads varies so much that, even in the case of two districts bordering on each other, it is by no means safe to assume that because the highway expenses are so much in the one case therefore the road upkeep in the other should be somewhere near the same. A large traffic in the one as against small in other; urban requirements in the one as against rural needs only in the other; storage of materials in a yard as against the depot system; and many more questions affect the two cases. It is no uncommon thing to find that in one parish the cost of upkeep of the highways is entirely different on the town side of the railway line to that on the rural side.

In my own district there are two parishes, the one being urban in character and the other purely rural. They almost adjoin each other, but the cost of maintenance per annum in the one is in round figures $2\frac{3}{4}d.$ per yard super of road surface as against $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ in the other, which again is adjacent to the main (Southampton) road having a large and increasing motor traffic.* And while the cost of maintenance of the main road, six miles in length, has during the past five years been on an average $4\frac{1}{4}d.$ per square yard, which is 50 per cent. more than during the preceding five years, the roads of the adjacent parish, where the ordinary traffic has remained much about the same and which are but little used by motors, have only increased in cost 5 per cent. in the same period. In both of these cases the wages, cost of rolling, horse hire, &c., are the same, viz., roadmen 18*s.* to £1 per week, roller £1 per day, horse hire 8*s.* per horse, cart and man per day, cartage by piecework 7*d.* to 8*d.* per ton per mile, while the prices of materials are granite 12*s.* 6*d.* to 14*s.*, flint 6*s.* 9*d.* to 7*s.*, and gravel 5*s.* 1*d.* to 5*s.* 4*d.* per ton, at the stations.

Taking the average expenditure by the county of Surrey on the whole of its main roads for the last ten years the cost has increased during the past five by 43 per cent.

I have frequently heard motorists express surprise at, and at times disbelief in, the extra burden in upkeep they are putting on the roads, but anyway they cannot ignore the fact that they have created a dust such as was unknown till they appeared upon the scene, and

* By the courtesy of the Secretary of the Automobile Association I have been supplied with a return of the number of cars passing along this road, and, taking the year through, they now average, during daylight, just over 500 per week. These figures do not include heavy motors used for trade purposes or motor cycles.

local authorities are now spending large sums annually in endeavouring to cope with this dust nuisance. The motorists may assert that they themselves share with others the additional burden of the rates, as well as pay fines and certain licenses, but a comparatively small minority have brought about this condition of things, and are converting the highways—or at any rate a large part of them—into a form of light railway, without ever having had to expend large sums in initial cost of the tracks they use. I know I am treading on tender ground when dealing with this subject, but I cannot help feeling that the motorists should contribute a considerable amount towards the upkeep of highways. The old turnpike system was an equitable arrangement, although it seems hardly possible to revive such a system, but when one sees motor after motor passing over roads which have to be maintained by the local ratepayer, whose name is legion, and who cannot afford to keep a car, but suffers all the discomforts of the passing traffic as well as finding his property depreciating in value, it does seem to me only reasonable that those who so largely use the roads, not for the purpose of trade but to suit their own convenience, should pay their fair share towards the upkeep. However, motor traffic has come to stay, and we surveyors have to face the difficulty of how best to maintain the surface under the altered conditions of things since its advent.

It is certainly with great diffidence that I, who have a comparatively small length of roads under my charge, should venture any opinion as to how the ever-increasing cost of upkeep should be met, but I do suggest that a fair contribution on the part of the motorists would be some means to an end, the amount paid by them being allocated by a central authority to the upkeep of each

road, proportionate to its requirements. Motorists themselves might help the road authorities by a more judicious use of the highways. Instead of, as one so frequently sees, one car following the other in exactly the same track, a little deviation to one side or the other would be of great help to those who are responsible for the repairs. When there is a pronounced camber in the surface, I know, being a motorist myself, that there is a certain amount of discomfort when one side of the car is tilted up more than the other, but a moderate camber, on gradients in particular where the surveyor aims at having his road flatter in section than on the level, there is practically no reason why the drivers of cars should not use a large part of the surface, instead of restricting themselves to the centre.

Mr. Arthur Vernon (Past-President) said he was sure he was voicing the opinion of the Meeting when he declared they had seldom heard two more concise and interesting Papers than the short documents that had been read by Mr. Grantham and Mr. Menzies. They looked at the subject apparently from different standpoints. Mr. Grantham looked at the whole surface of the kingdom and drew general deductions, while Mr. Menzies dealt with a somewhat contracted district under his own control.

One often wondered, why did the roads in England differ so much in their character? Why did they wind about the hills of necessity causing bad corners, and why were country roads as a rule so narrow? He supposed that the chief reason was that our country roads were formerly intended for pack-horse tracks, to

which they were very well suited. Two generations back he had heard his father say wheeled carriages were almost unknown in Leicestershire in country districts, except for farming, so that within the last 150 years an alteration in the user had necessitated a change in the construction of the roads of England, and a time had now come when they required further alterations of a very radical character.

The remarks of the readers of the Papers were rather difficult to reconcile with the claims of the new traffic. Some twenty years ago the county council to which he belonged thought bicycles were a great nuisance, the farmers said they frightened the young colts, that they ought to pay towards the upkeep of the roads, and made other remarks of a similar nature, which if repeated in any assembly to-day would be treated as a sign of an unsound mind. Bicycles were now looked upon as the poor man's friend, and motors would soon come to be looked upon in the same way, and twenty years hence anyone who regarded motors as a nuisance would be held to be behind the times. It was said motorists wanted to go too fast, with the result that roads were unduly worn, and the traffic of traction engines and heavy road locomotives had also to be considered. The first essential in road contruction was a good surface for fast traffic, and the second a thoroughly well-constructed and ample foundation to support heavy traffic.

They had all heard of extraordinary traffic, but people were asking sometimes whether the fault did not lie in the weakness of the roads rather than in the weight of the traffic. Why should a man not take his timber and bricks upon the roads, and why should they not be able to carry the weight? Our road sur-

veyors should certainly endeavour to give a good surface, but that was useless without a good foundation. A road should always be able to carry safely the weights allowed by law.

Then there was the extraordinary wail from the road-side villages where there were pretty cottages opening on to the street, whose occupants said they could not now open their windows for the dust or hear each other speak for the noise, and whose children could not play in their ancestral playgrounds, the village roads. One of the most pitiful things he remembered reading was a largely signed petition by the women of England, which was addressed to Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen. What had become of it he did not know.

He observed how very tenderly Mr. Menzies dealt with the question of the improvement of roads and the economy in carrying it out. He, the speaker, was talking about two towns the other day, one a most important one in the middle of England, in which the rates were 10*s.* 3*d.* in the £, and the other of less importance with a rate of 5*s.* 3*d.* His friend said of the first, it was played out, and of the other, what a future it had before it.

All towns and districts were terribly afraid of rates, and that was one of the great difficulties in municipal government. The natural conclusion was that in maintaining main roads the County Councils were carrying on work of a national character, and that such roads should be maintained out of the national funds. How soon that might be possible in face of the present finances was a problem consisting almost entirely of "unknown quantities."

One of the readers of the Papers spoke of motors creating dust. They might raise dust, but no two

rubber tyres would break a stone unless it were the fault of the road, whereas a pair of heavy draught horses in the process of travelling over every mile would hit the ground about 28,000 times and each blow would have the force of half a hundredweight. Which was the most likely to break the stones—the soft rubber-tyred motor that ran so smoothly, though it raised the dust from a disintegrated or badly formed road, or the hoof of the horse? No doubt, as had been stated, the tarred surface would give a vast amount of comfort, and they were much indebted to the readers of the Papers for the information given them. He knew some lovely and perfect tar-mac roads that had been six months in existence and gave off no dust from vehicles, whether the traction engine of 10 tons or the small tradesmen's motor of half a ton, but of course the expenditure outside towns was prohibitive. In some counties they tried to combine both by having a strip of the best surface in the middle of the road for the heavy traffic, the other traffic passing on either side of the road.

In last week's Paper he had seen it mentioned that there had been a great increase of tetanus, or lock-jaw, in recent years, and that after analysis they were inclined to put it down to wood pavement. That was not a subject that could be entered into on the present occasion, but if it could be proved that wood pavement might produce that awful disease it would be a serious argument against its use as a road material.

He had heard with astonishment Mr. Menzies' recommendation of gravel as a material for main roads. He knew a dear old surveyor who for fifty years had had charge of a great road near London, and who whenever he came across loose stones in the road would stop his

pony and pick them up and put them out of the way, as he said a loose round stone was a danger to beast and a nuisance to man. You could not get round stones to fit in, and if you broke them too much you got powder and dust, and in no sense did he believe gravel formed proper material for roads. That was also the experience of the Buckinghamshire County Council, where his friend Mr. Thomas was the road surveyor, who had made their county roads to compare well with other main roads, and much better than before he had charge of them. He knew two roads the direct antithesis of each other. He lived in South Bucks, and when he went to Richmond or Brighton he had to go through Old Windsor, and one part of the road he shirked, and avoided altogether if possible. He was afraid of it. It was the road from Old Windsor to Egham and Staines. That gravel was always loose, and he hoped Mr. Menzies would explain the cause in his reply. The other road, also under Mr. Menzies' care, through Old Windsor, and through Virginia Water to Sunningdale, was sumptuous in its beauty and excellent in surface.

After the making of a magnificent road by an urban or rural authority it must be extremely annoying for them to see gaslight, water, sewage and other authorities, breaking up the roads and leaving soft places for considerable distances. That ought to be impossible; it was enough to break the heart of a conscientious road surveyor, and should certainly be prevented by legistion.

He hoped too much would not be said against motors, for they had come to stay. Very few car owners were ever likely to return to the old antiquated means of locomotion, and as time went on more and more would be brought into their ranks. A good surface was there-

fore essential to avoid raising, not creating, dust, and for the prosperity and comfort of country districts and as a public duty main roads should be nationalised and not maintained by the locality. When they talked of adding a considerable sum to the cost of road maintenance they must remember that all legislation of recent years had been against increasing the cost to those who used them, such as, for instance, the taking away of toll-gates. The roads had been thrown open, and the thing required was to adapt them to the change of traffic.

He had much pleasure in proposing a vote of thanks to the readers of the Papers.

Professor HENRY ROBINSON, M.I.C.E. (Fellow), said he had very great pleasure in seconding the vote of thanks which he thought was thoroughly deserved by the authors of the two interesting Papers.

He should be brief in his remarks as Mr. Vernon who had proposed the vote of thanks had dealt with many subjects connected with the Papers, and he would confine himself to one or two points. Those older Members who, like himself, could look back to the difficulties they had had years ago in dealing with roads and carrying out improvements, and to the indifference that existed until fifteen or twenty years back in the methods of constructing roads, would feel satisfied at the present time in knowing how many intelligent men were devoting their knowledge and money to making better roads than in the past.

Real economy consisted in making a road that would not require constant repair. They all knew that in London (in some of the streets in this immediate neighbourhood) roads were very well made, but they

were constantly being repaired by small patches of asphalte or wood paving, thus causing considerable annoyance and interference with the traffic. Now, however, there were methods of making roads where that evil could be minimised or even avoided. There were several good methods referred to in Mr. Grantham's Paper.

He would refer to one that came to his knowledge last year, when he was asked to investigate a new method of road making, which resulted in the formation of a road that would stand any amount of wear and tear without either cracking or producing dust, as the surface remained hard and intact. It was also free from the risk of slips, and the cost was moderate. He investigated the method, which was discovered by a French expert who had devoted years of consideration to the subject, and from what he had seen it appeared to be quite satisfactory. The success was due to the use of pitch, liquified in conjunction with certain materials which had required years of investigation, and the combination produced a chemical reaction. The resultant mixture was spread over the surface of the road, on which sharp hard stones had previously been laid, and the whole was rolled into a hard solid mass. This formed a wonderful composition, the mixture preventing any movement between the stones which were surrounded by that material, and after months and months of the heaviest traffic the surface showed no sign of wear, nor the slightest dust, and the cost was no more, but rather less, than that of making the best roads, while the cost of maintenance was minimised.

He had very great pleasure in seconding the vote of thanks to the readers of the Papers.

Colonel CROMPTON (Visitor), responding to the invitation of the President, said that as a guest it would be obviously ungenerous of him to criticise the Papers severely, but when he heard their Past-President make a most statesmanlike speech, and really criticise them far more severely than he could have done, he felt emboldened to say that the Papers, although interesting, and with some facts in them which might be of use to those who had not followed the subject closely of late years, were not up to date.

The question of dealing with the roads of England had probably attracted more attention from engineers and other thoughtful men during the last three years than any other subject of the time, and the results had been remarkable. The results already obtained had shown that in England they possessed in their road surveyors, and particularly in their district surveyors, a body of men deserving of all praise. He did not want that to be taken too broadly, for although there were amongst them a body of up-to-date go-ahead men who really were holding England in the foremost place with regard to road-making of any country in the world, he wished he could say the same of the whole of them and of many of the county surveyors.

He was going to say perhaps a hard thing, but he was convinced of the truth of what he said. County surveyors as a rule were not chosen for their road-making abilities but for other qualities which had up to the present been considered of greater importance, and the consequence was that to the district surveyors of England, and to men promoted from that rank to the higher ranks, they must look for the greater advance that they had reason to expect.

The problem of roads was perhaps more difficult in England than in any other country in the world. It was entirely a weather problem, and it was curious that throughout the two Papers the extreme climatic difficulties as compared with other countries that had a more fixed climate, such as France, had not been touched upon. The difficulties of knowing when to carry out modern road reconstruction were so great, on account of the uncertainty of the weather, and the necessary plant and material so much in demand when the weather was suitable, that it was small wonder that in many cases the work was only partially successful. The year before last we had a summer which enabled a great deal of the waterproofing of roads to be carried on with good effect. 1,200 or 1,400 miles of road were treated in 1908, which showed an enormous increase of roads rendered dustless and waterproof, and people prophesied that at last the problem had been solved. Unfortunately last year we had an extraordinary year. No men could get on to the roads, and one could not get them dry enough properly to take the waterproof binders, so that the prophecy of the year before was not verified.

It was now abundantly evident that the problem of the successful use of plant, and the proper means of dealing with road renewal in a rapid manner, was that of the weather, and it was abundantly evident that the palliatives that two years ago were thought capable of supplying waterproof roads, and rendering them independent of the weather, were so dependent on the weather in the application, that they could not be relied upon. They must prepare materials in advance, and lay out a scheme of operation which would enable

them to put a waterproof coating on a road to make it independent of weather for the ten or fifteen years following, and that could and no doubt would be done. There was proof of it on all sides. The best men in the kingdom were now agreeing to it, and the fact that it was not universally adopted in every county council in England or in the United Kingdom, was that a great many who ought to know better were not taking the trouble to lay the real facts of the case before either the county council or the ratepayers. The great fact was that not only could this reconstruction be carried out, but it could be carried out at a reduced expense to the ratepayers.

There were sentences in both the Papers that showed that both writers understood that this, although a mere palliative, would effect a great saving, but nothing was said on the real question of waterproofing the road and making it practically everlasting and independent of the weather. Few county or district surveyors had had the pluck to tell the ratepayers that the weather and not the traffic was the enemy. The weather was the disturbing element as when the weather was excessively wet it favoured the formation of mud, and the binding material was then gradually removed or washed away in the form of mud, or remained as mud to be dried up eventually and by slight pressure formed into dust and then carried away by passing traffic.

At the present time there could be no greater libel than that which accused the motors of being the main cause of wear of the present roads. It was one of those manifestly untrue partisan statements that had been repeatedly made and had been proved to be untrue by every scientific engineer who had looked into the matter, for

how was it possible to wear the hard gritty material of the surface of the roads by a softer material such as rubber? Then there was the second attempt to substantiate the former statement by assertions that the rubber tyres caused a sucking action which sucked away the binding material, but it was no use contradicting statements which were no longer persisted in by the road men who knew their business. The real cause of excessive wear was, as Mr. Vernon had stated, caused by the hammering of the horses' feet. What was now required and badly needed all over the country was a scheme of reconstruction of road surfaces, not necessarily to put in new foundations, the expense of which would be too great to contemplate, but by a well considered choice of plant and by preparing in advance and making ready in winter and at suitable times the materials to be laid on the roads, and by the proper means of rapidly organising the labour on the roads in the dry seasons of the year, so as to take advantage of the very short spells of fine weather they had in their country to lay the material and roll it in as quickly as possible. It was that neglect to prepare for weather opportunities that had made our road making expensive in the past and would do so in the future so long as the present methods were persisted in.

Mr. Menzies had said that patching metal must be put on thin. If he meant by that an ordinary pothole in the road was to have material put on to it and rolled in, it was a misleading idea. There was only one method of repairing ruts or potholes which was durable and satisfactory, namely, to cut them down with square sides to a sufficient depth—4 or 5 inches—and then fill in with tar macadam, roll it, and the pothole or rut became

as good as the rest of the road. There were long lengths of roads in Sussex where ruts two feet wide were taken out and carefully filled with tar material and rolled down, and afterwards the road was tar-sprinkled all over. Any one travelling on those roads would see that they resembled railways—the rutted portions were the best parts of the roads, and would last for many years, and the cost was so small that a 16-feet road had been reduced to about £70 a year for maintenance, though that road was taking a large share of the very heavy motor traffic that went to Brighton. He thought those facts were encouraging.

The gospel they had to preach was that roads in future must be waterproof, and must be independent of the weather, and that could well be carried out cheaply by an extension of that rutting system to the very great mileage of the narrow roads of the kingdom.

He agreed with the last speaker thoroughly that it was monstrous to say that a motor car owner who paid about twopence a mile for soft materials on his wheels, which could not wear the roads, should be taxed extra, where horse-drawn traffic that did the damage was not to be taxed at all.

Mr. H. T. Wakelam (Visitor) said he did not think he should have responded to the invitation of the President if it had not been for the remarks which he had just heard from Colonel Crompton, but he happened possibly to be one of those unfortunate men that Colonel Crompton had referred to as having no knowledge or ability and no capacity for the work in which they were

engaged. Colonel Crompton had not said that in so many words, but he had said enough to lead everybody in that room to believe that the county surveyors of this country were little better than idiots or fools. He was sorry to hear him say that, for he had a great respect for Colonel Crompton, and the theories which he always put forward.

He must congratulate Mr. Grantham and Mr. Menzies on their two very interesting Papers. Mr. Grantham had referred to the Holyhead Road, constructed by Mr. Telford, and to the admirable foundation that, according to his specification, should have been put in that road, but long lengths of the Holyhead Road, some of which were under his (Mr. Wakelam's) control some years ago, did not possess quite the kind of foundation referred to by Mr. Grantham. Mr. Telford's specification was not always carried out. The finances of the country at the time had not allowed it, in the same way that the finances at the present time did not enable county councils to re-form the roads with foundations as they would like to do.

Mr. Grantham had mentioned the best method of dealing with clayey subsoils. There were gentlemen in that room who knew about the clayey formation of North Middlesex, and during the last eight years his duty had been to construct and reconstruct some of the roads in that part, his experience being that nothing answered better than clinker for clay formations upon which to found a good bottom structure of a road.

Mr. Grantham also referred to wood paving; it was an admirable form of road construction, as everybody knew, and for town streets especially he thought it was hard to beat. In Middlesex they did not carry out the

system advocated by Mr. Grantham, but they had close joints (with allowances for lateral expansion), grouted with two coats of pitch, bitumen, and creosote oil. Mr. Grantham mentioned cement grouting, but he thought, on consideration, that he (Mr. Grantham) would not use it, for everybody knew that cement would not stick wood together. There was no affinity between the two materials. It would simply go to dust.

Some years ago he had under his charge over 500 miles of main roads in a western county of England, and it formed a part of his duty, in the course of his administration, to have those roads tested throughout the county. In doing so he had trial holes dug into the roads about every quarter of a mile, and he found the average thickness of the crust was only about four inches of metalling overlying the other natural foundation to carry the traffic of the county, and that no doubt was illustrative of a very large mileage of the main roads in other counties of England and Wales.

In regard to the upkeep of roads he had recently learned from a report sent out by the county surveyor of West Cornwall, who had made a Return from forty-one counties of England and Wales that the increase in road maintenance for the last ten years (he would not say owing to motor traffic, for that gave offence) was no less than 41 per cent. in those forty-one counties.

They had heard a great deal about the reconstruction of roads and what ought to be done. Some time ago it was his pleasure to give evidence before a Commission on heavy motor traffic, and he stated then that the cost of re-forming the roads of this country alone to carry the weights suggested would be about 287 millions of money, and he had no reason to alter his opinion. They

had not yet been called upon to spend such a sum, and if they were he did not know where it would come from.

The proper course, to his ignorant mind, in dealing with road improvements and development would be to take the bad corners and the narrow portions of each main road, and to deal first with "blind" corners, which were the cause of most accidents.

Some time ago it was his duty to bring up a scheme for the reconstruction of a new road at the back of the High Street, Brentford. Everybody knew of the nuisance caused by motor and other traffic in that street, and he calculated that the cost for a road under 1½ mile long would be about half a million of money, so that that scheme was naturally pigeon-holed at once. Two motor roads had been suggested in the western part of Middlesex, each about 12 miles long, and his estimate was approximately £5,000,000 for each road. In Middlesex he found they had spent about £800,000 during the last eight years in widening about 50 miles of roads for tramways. That gave some idea of what new arterial roads would cost leading out of London.

He agreed with Mr. Grantham and Mr. Menzies that a good deal of money was saved by the practice of tarring roads. They had proved in Middlesex during the last seven or eight years that on roads covered with tar each year, after being properly covered with the best material obtainable, they had certainly saved in the cost of upkeep of macadam, and the County Council of Middlesex had recently offered the urban authorities 1¾*d.* a yard for painting by hand, 1*d.* for horse-machine painting, and ¾*d.* per yard for painting by mechanical spreaders. They recognised the saving and were pre-

pared to give those amounts to the authorities if they so covered the roads with tar.

Mr. Grantham had given the mileage of roads at 228,438 for England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. Averaging the said mileage at six yards wide the result would be 2,412,305,280 superficial yards. Priceing them at 5*s.* per yard, a very moderate sum for reconstruction, the modest result would be £603,076,320, which some people required, or would like to see, spent on the reconstruction of the roads of the United Kingdom. He was one of those who would like to see the money spent, and he thought the improvement of roads was a highly commendable policy, but when the present incidence of taxation was considered in relation to the upkeep of roads, and everything that had to be done in connection with them, he thought they would agree that it was absolutely impossible for such a sum to be expended.

If they took the roads of this country and expended 1*d.* extra cost per square yard on them for upkeep they at once added a million per annum to the cost of the upkeep of the main roads in Great Britain alone.

Mr. Grantham had suggested a standard for roads, but he (Mr. Wakelam) was absolutely of opinion that it was impossible to lay out a standard for all roads of this country. They had to consider the tonnage, degree of traffic, the local circumstances, and a large number of other things which did not appear on the surface, before they could say that such and such standard was a proper one to lay down for a road in any particular district.

With regard to slag roads he was not personally one of those who was much in favour of them. He did not

believe that they would last many years under heavy traffic no matter how they might be treated. One kind of slag was of a brittle nature like flint, the other was honeycombed and soft, and he could not think that by adding tar to those materials one could get a road to stand heavy traffic. They could not obtain hardness and toughness by the addition of tar.

The consensus of opinion of engineers at the Paris Road Congress was that a gradient of 1 in 40 was sufficient for hard macadam, not only for ordinary traffic, but it was also considered a very good gradient to meet the requirements of the mechanical traffic now on roads. Paved roads, asphalte roads, setts and wood were put at 1 in 55. Longitudinal gradients should never exceed 1 in 25. Country roads may have a steeper gradient, probably 1 in 30.

As to the width of roads, in Middlesex they thought a road should be at least 52 feet wide with a carriage-way 32 feet wide, and the County Council of Middlesex, during the last eight years, had spent about £800,000 on widening roads for the purpose of accommodating the 50 miles of trams which they had been laying down.

He agreed almost entirely with Mr. Menzies, except when he advocated the mixing of materials. In the opinion of the speaker it was unwise to put hard and soft materials together, as it must lead to unequal wear; the hard material would last much longer than the soft, and potholes would probably be the consequence.

Whatever might be said about motor cars raising dust, there was no doubt that they created it. Previous to the tar painting of the Bath Road in Middlesex, motor traffic became of very great moment, and the Bath Road on a Monday, after the motor traffic on a

Sunday, was covered by small pieces or particles of metalling and road detritus, almost up to the size of a pea, and if a motor car was not raising dust it was disintegrating the road, and causing wear in connection with it.

At the present time the main roads of this country cost about 2*d.* per yard to maintain them, and if the whole mileage was covered with tar they would add from one to two million pounds annually to their road bill at once, and he did not think the state of the country, so far as financial matters were concerned, would stand it.

The county surveyors of this country appeared, from what had been said, to be a much maligned body, but he did not think if they went the whole world over they would find a more capable body of men, although he did not naturally wish to include himself when he made that statement.

Sir STAFFORD HOWARD, K.C.B. (Honorary Member), in response to a call from the President, said that he had not intended to speak on the subject as he was present rather as a learner, because in his official capacity he was responsible, in different parts of the country, for sometimes making and always keeping up a certain number of roads.

He could show them, in the Forest of Dean, a road nearly 2,000 years old, which had been closed recently in order to preserve it as one of the ancient monuments of the country. It was a Roman road, with the kerbs just as laid, but it would hardly please a modern motorist to go along it. As against that he could show them a new main road of about 11 miles, taken over by

the county council. It was made partly by the Crown and partly by the district council authorities.

The Telford principle of putting down the foundation had been adopted. It was a good road, but he was bound to say it was very expensive to make. It had cost nearly double the estimated cost, and he had had to use all the arts of which he was capable to satisfy the Treasury that he had spent the money properly; the county council would however reap the advantage, for the road was infinitely better for being made in that way.

He was also interested in roads round Regent's Park. He was, *ex officio*, a member of the Commission that had to keep such roads in repair, and it was a difficult task to please the people living in the houses adjoining and those using the road. They were very anxious to avoid dust, and he had found great advantage in the use of akonia, which they mixed with water, and the water-carts had not to go round so frequently as if only water had been used. All the inhabitants were thoroughly satisfied with akonia, so far as preventing dust was concerned, but it cost about £170 or £180 more than the use of water alone would.

The watering with akonia, although most useful for laying the dust, had not helped them to keep the road in good order, and although part of it was entirely renewed a year and a half ago, that part was just as bad now as when they did it. Motors certainly did their share of the damage at any rate, and in his own county of Gloucester where he lived he had noticed specially a road between Bristol and Gloucester; that road never got so quickly worn before the motors ran over it as it did now, and he could not help thinking

that when potholes came they at any rate had the effect of enlarging them quickly.

The Commission of which he was an *ex officio* member was going, as an experiment, to lay a road with a foundation such as was specified, and see if it paid in the end. Patchwork operation on the top of a road did not pay. It was surely better to lay a good foundation by degrees and do it systematically and then tar over the road on the top to make it waterproof, and so far as he could see that, in the end, would be both economical and satisfactory to everybody concerned. Although the ratepayer was always frightened at an increased expense, yet if it could be shown that this initial expense would pay him in the end, he would be satisfied. Then they would satisfy those people who used the road, for they would have a better surface, and finally they would satisfy those unfortunate people on the roadside, whose life was now a burden to them through the dust.

The county councils ought always to tar the roads wherever they ran through villages. Some county councils did it if the village paid half, but a good many villages said, "It is not our fault if we live here. We "have to pay our rates and we do not see why our life "should be made a burden and the houses made unin- "habitable because a motor goes flying through and "creates so much dust." Surely a little pressure might be brought to bear on county councils to compel them to tar their roads when they run through villages.

He could not agree with Colonel Crompton's remarks about motor cars. He remembered his late friend, Sir Wilfrid Lawson, making a reply to a lady who had a pet white duck killed by one of his foxes. He replied, as he always did, in rhyme, the last line of which was

that "polecats kill the ducks and geese, and foxes do no harm." He could not say that motors did no harm.

The vote of thanks having been put to the Meeting and carried unanimously,

The PRESIDENT said that as it was getting late and as there were many other gentlemen who would like to continue the discussion it would be adjourned till Monday, 9th May, when Mr. Howard Martin, Past-President, would re-open the discussion.

The Surveyors' Institution.

AT

THE ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING,

Called for Monday, 9th May, 1910,

For the further discussion of Mr. R. F. GRANTHAM'S Paper on

"ROAD CONSTRUCTION AND MAINTENANCE,"

AND

Mr. W. MENZIES' Paper on

"ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON ROAD MAINTENANCE."

After the formal business the PRESIDENT at once arose and addressed the Meeting, as follows:—

"Gentlemen, you will agree with me that this Meeting, occuring so soon after the overwhelming calamity which has befallen us in the death of our revered Sovereign, King Edward VII, is a most painful and distressing one, and you will therefore be prepared for the announcement I am now about to make, that as a mark of our sorrow and respect we shall not proceed with our business to-night. But I feel it my duty to say a few words on our great—our national—loss. In the death of King Edward VII we have lost one who had endeared himself to the whole country by his kindliness and thought for all his subjects; a man of splendid tact; a diplomat of world-wide influence; the "Peacemaker," as he has worthily been called; a gentleman in the best sense of the word; a fine sportsman and an eminent agriculturist. A man in sympathy with

all classes of his people, who did not spare himself in his endeavour to ameliorate the lot of the sick and poor. All will remember that it was through his efforts that the great Diamond Jubilee Hospital Fund was organised, and through his influence that it has since been added to and kept going.

"His death is a very heavy loss not only to the whole of the British Empire, but to the world at large.

"I need not say more. We all revered our noble King, and feel a poignant regret that the time during which he was spared to reign over us was so short; but during that time no man could have done more than he to merit our love and gratitude, and his name will be handed down to posterity as one of the greatest and most beloved monarchs whose deeds form part of our national history.

"The Council have decided to convey an address of sympathy and condolence to King George V, Queen Mary, The Queen Mother and the Royal Family, and of congratulation to the King on his succession to the Throne.

"King George, in his first speech in that august office, promised to follow in the footsteps of his revered father, and if he does that we shall feel that we have at the head of the State one to look up to and trust, feeling confident that the interests of the country and his individual subjects are safe in his hands. All will join in wishing him success in his great office, and long life to enjoy the devotion and affection of his people."

The Corporation Seal was affixed to the following loyal Address, which was forwarded to the Home Office on the 19th May, 1910 :—

TO THE KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

The Humble Address of the President, Council, and Members of The Surveyors' Institution

(*Incorporated by Royal Charter*).

We, the President, Council, and Members of The Surveyors' Institution, in General Meeting assembled, beg respectfully to tender to your Majesty an expression of our heartfelt grief at the overwhelming loss which has been sustained by this Nation and Empire in the death of your Majesty's illustrious Father, our revered Sovereign, King Edward VII., who throughout his life offered a noble example of devotion to the service of his people, and to the preservation of peace.

While thus expressing to your Majesty and the Royal Family our respectful sympathy, we desire to offer our sincere congratulations on your Majesty's accession to the Throne of the Empire, and an assurance of our loyalty and attachment.

THE ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

Monday, 30th May, 1910.

ALEXANDER ROSE STENNING (President) in the Chair.

The Report of the Scrutineers, appointed at the Ordinary General Meeting of Monday, 9th May, 1910, under the provisions of Article XLII. of the By-Laws, was read to the Meeting.

The Report declared that the following were elected a

COUNCIL FOR THE ENSUING YEAR.

President.

LESLIE ROBERT VIGERS.

Vice-Presidents.

WILLIAM EDGAR HORNE, M.P.
THE HON. EDWARD GERALD STRUTT
JOHN FARRER
THOMAS BINNIE

Members of Council.

WILLIAM EDWARD WOOLLEY
HOWARD CHATFEILD CLARKE
EDWARD BLAKEWAY I'ANSON
JOHN GERMAN
GEORGE FRANCIS STEWART
FREDERICK GEORGE CHINNOCK
HENRY W. D. THEOBALD
SAMUEL HOOD COWPER COLES
ARTHUR LYON RYDE
HENRY HERBERT SMITH
JOHN HUBERT OAKLEY
ALFRED MICHELMORE
THOMAS SILK WILSON
JOHN HENRY HANSON
SIR ROBERT JAMES THOMPSON
ANDREW YOUNG

Professional Associates of Council.

CHARLES PELL HALL.
STANLEY HICKS.

Associates of Council.

THE RIGHT HONOURABLE LORD ALVERSTONE, G.C.M.G.
(Lord Chief Justice of England).
SIR JOHN WOLFE BARRY, K.C.B.

The Report of the Council on the affairs of The Institution, and the Statement of Receipts and Expenditure for the year 1909 were read.

It was Resolved—"That the Report of the Council and the Balance Sheet be received and approved, and be printed and circulated with the *Transactions*."

It was Resolved—"That the thanks of The Institution be given to Messrs. H. C. Newmarch and Stanley Hicks for the efficient performance of their duties as Auditors. That Mr. H. C. Newmarch be requested to continue his services for the ensuing year, and that Mr. H. T. Scoble be elected an Auditor in the place of Mr. Stanley Hicks, now a Professional Associate of Council."

It was Resolved—"That the thanks of The Institution are due and be given to the President, Vice-Presidents, and the other Members and Associates of the Council, for the able manner in which they have administered the affairs of The Institution."

It was Resolved—"That the thanks of The Institution be given to Mr. Percivall Currey (the Honorary Secretary), to Mr. Alexander Goddard (the Secretary), and the other officers of The Institution, for the able manner in which they have executed their several duties."

The President presented the following Prizes won by Candidates in the Professional and Preliminary Examinations, 1910:—

THE "PRELIMINARY PRIZE" OF THE VALUE OF £2 2*s*.

to Robert Graham Anderson, for the highest number of marks in the Preliminary Examination, 1910.

THE "BEADEL" PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £5

to Clifford Morris, for the best work in the subject "Agriculture" in the Intermediate Examination, 1910.

"THE INSTITUTION" PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £15 15*s.*

to ARTHUR JOHN MAYNE, first of the Student Candidates in the Intermediate Examination, 1910.

THE SPECIAL PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £10 10*s.*

to PERCY NORMAN STEDHAM, second on the pass list of the Student Candidates in the Intermediate Examination, 1910.

THE "PENFOLD" SILVER MEDAL

for the highest percentage of marks (over 75 °/₀ of the maximum) in the Students' and Non-Students' Divisions of the Intermediate Examination, 1910, to ALBERT DE BOIS SHROSBREE, who also won

THE "DRIVER" PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £15

for the highest marks gained by a Non-Student Candidate in the Intermediate Examination, 1910.

THE "PENFOLD" GOLD MEDAL

for the highest marks (over 75 °/₀ of the maximum) in the Final Examination, 1910, to FREDERICK STEPHEN MARSH, who also won

THE "CRAWTER" PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £10

for the best work in the subject "Principles and Practice of Valuation" in the Final Examination, 1910.

THE "GALSWORTHY" PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £15

awarded to the Candidate in the Final Examination, who, having passed the previous Examination as a Student, is found to have obtained the highest aggregate of marks in the two Examinations combined, to ISAAC RUBINSTEIN.

THE "SCOTTISH COMMITTEE" PRIZE OF THE VALUE OF £10 10*s.*

to HUGH HARVEY MCTAGGART for the best work in the Intermediate Examination in Glasgow, 1910.

It was resolved—

"That the thanks of the Meeting be given to Messrs. W. T. CRESWELL, C. J. LAKE, R. B. MANN, J. H. MELLENFIELD, and H. T. SCOBLE, for their services as Scrutineers."

A vote of thanks to Mr. Stenning for his conduct in the chair was carried unanimously, and the proceedings then terminated.

THE FORTY-SECOND

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE COUNCIL.

Annual General Meeting, 30th May, 1910.

The Council now present their Forty-Second Annual Report, and in doing so they follow precedent by again placing before Members the usual statistical tables comparing the number of Members in the various Classes during recent years, and showing the total annual growth of The Institution since its foundation in 1869.

TABLE A.

	Honorary Members.	Fellows.	Professional Associates.	Associates.	Students.	Colonial Fellows.	Total
May, 1908	28	1819	1786	77	350	40	4100
May, 1909	26	1821	1876	76	385	45	4229
May, 1910	24	1862	1970	75	365	47	4343
	−2	+41	+94	−1	−20	+2	+114

Table B.

	Members (or "Fellows" after 1881).	Associates.		Students.	Total.
		Professional.	Ordinary.		
May, 1869 ...	162	38		2	202
„ 1870 ...	180	59		2	241
„ 1871 ...	190	65		2	259
„ 1872 ...	205	67		4	276
„ 1873 ...	225	74		5	304
„ 1874 ...	247	89		6	332
„ 1875 ...	275	101		11	387
„ 1876 ...	300	119		8	427
„ 1877 ...	310	133		11	454
„ 1878 ...	312	134		8	454
„ 1879 ...	330	146		10	486
„ 1880 ...	342	155		10	507
„ *1881 ...	357	164		14	535
„ 1882 ...	480	235		7	722
„ 1883 ...	557	218	74	38	887
„ 1884 ...	666	307	80	58	1121
„ 1885 ...	703	317	86	86	1192
„ 1886 ...	716	316	84	80	1196
„ 1887 ...	741	339	89	108	1277
„ 1888 ...	798	333	90	102	1323
„ 1889 ...	910	334	89	110	1443
„ 1890 ...	1095	310	89	123	1617
„ 1891 ...	1374	336	96	140	1946
„ 1892 ...	1646	342	97	172	2268
„ 1893 ...	1629	353	93	181	2269
„ 1894 ...	1626	381	84	204	2309
„ 1895 ...	1629	430	83	210	2352
„ 1896 ...	1802	465	86	220	2573
„ 1897 ...	1808	540	84	252	2684
„ 1898 ...	1835	615	85	272	2807
„ 1899 ...	1887	686	84	308	2965
„ 1900 ...	1883	757	88	336	3064
„ 1901 ...	1883	834	89	364	3170
„ 1902 ...	1891	906	86	392	3275
„ 1903 ...	1897	1025	86	396	3404
„ 1904 ...	1886	1140	80	409	3515
„ 1905 ...	1893	1312	80	384	3669
„ 1906 ...	1878	1502	74	361	3815
„ 1907 ...	1832	1638	74	345	3889
„ 1908 ...	1819	1786	77	350	4032
„ 1909 ...	1821	1876	76	385	4158
„ 1910 ...	1862	1970	75	365	4272
			Honorary Members ...		24
			Colonial Fellows ...		47
			1910 Grand Total...		4343

* Since August, 1881, "Members" have been designated "Fellows," and, in 1883, "Associates" were divided into "Ordinary" and "Professional" Associates.

The increase in numbers by 114 during a year in which the business of surveyors has generally been lacking in activity speaks well for the hold upon the profession possessed by The Institution, and the examination returns which follow seem to indicate that this hold is likely to be increased rather than diminished in the future.

All Members will welcome the addition of the name of Sir Robert Chalmers, K.C.B., Chairman of the Inland Revenue Commissioners, to the list of Honorary Members. At a time like the present, when such momentous changes are being made in the incidence of taxation, surveyors in all parts of the country will be reassured by the fact that so responsible a position is held by an official of Sir Robert Chalmers' ability, clearness of head and judicial attributes.

The Council have again to mourn the loss of many valued Members, among whom the name of John Wornham Penfold seems naturally to call for first mention. From the foundation of The Institution Mr. Penfold was intimately connected with the management of its affairs, as Hon. Secretary, 1868-1903, as Vice-President, 1904-1909, and as Honorary Member from April, 1909, until his death in October of that year. In these circumstances it is not surprising that the ideals of its founders were always before his eyes; indeed it has been due to the guidance of Mr. Penfold and others like him that these ideals have not been lost sight of in the wonderful growth of The Institution in membership and influence. Mr. Penfold's attachment for The Institution in life received further testimony, were such needed, on his death, a legacy of £500 being left by him to The Institution, and a similar sum to the Benevolent Fund.

Another distinguished member, by whose death the

whole country as well as The Institution sustained loss, was the Right Honourable Viscount Selby, who as Mr. William Court Gully became an Associate Member of The Institution in 1880, and was elected an Honorary Member in 1895 on being made Speaker of the House of Commons.

Among others whom death has claimed during the year may be named His Honour Judge John Shiress Will, K.C., who became an Associate in 1876 and was elected an Honorary Member in 1906 on being made a Judge of the County Court. Mr. Richard Cunningham Glen, an Associate Member since 1895, who for many years acted as one of the legal examiners of The Institution, Mr. Edward Saunders (1869) Middlesex, Mr. Herbert Edward Watson (1880) Yorkshire and Sussex, Mr. Robert Forrest (1881) South Wales, Mr. Edward Tewson (1884) London, and Mr. James Henry (1899) Glasgow.

Finance.

The year's receipts have been augmented by Mr. Penfold's legacy of £500, already mentioned. Beyond this they seem to call for no special comment, except perhaps a passing reference to the fact that the receipts for the hire of arbitration rooms touched a lower level than they had done since 1894, a sure indication of the stagnation at present existing in both public and private enterprise.

From the payment side it will be seen that the Penfold Memorial Scholarship has been placed upon a sound financial basis by the purchase of £1,600 Canadian Pacific Railway 4 per cent. Debenture Stock, the Council having allocated Mr. Penfold's legacy to this object, adding thereto a sufficient sum to bring in the required income.

The payments out of revenue include £500, the second moiety of The Institution subscription towards the cost of the new buildings for housing the Agricultural Department of Cambridge University, the recent opening of which was attended by the President. They also include £524 law charges in respect of The Institution's successful opposition in Parliament to the London County Council (General Powers) Bill, 1909.

With the present year the Council introduced a scheme for the superannuation of the staff by means of insurance with a public company, considering that the principle of spreading possible liabilities over a wide range of years to be a prudent one, although, with a comparatively small staff, the impossibility of averaging made any attempt at private insurance unsatisfactory.

The scheme should prove of real advantage to the staff, who will know that in the event of good service they may look for substantial assistance on retiring at the age of 65.

Table C.

Receipts.	£	s.	d.	Payments.	£	s.	d.
Revenue Balance 1st January, 1909	843	9	8	Total Payments out of Revenue (Current Expenses)	10,903	11	11
Total Receipts on Revenue	11,617	11	6	Purchase of £1,172 19*s.* 1*d.* Consol. 2½ per cent. on account of Scholarship Fund	1,000	0	0
Examinations Account	675	18	2	Purchase of £1,600 Canadian Pacific Railway 4 per cent. Debenture Stock for the Penfold Scholarship	1,709	2	9
Receipts on Capital Account	958	13	0	Payments on Capital Account (Furniture)	66	7	0
Reserve Fund	98	13	6	Balance in hand, December 31st, 1909	641	7	2
Scholarship Fund	13	16	0				
Examinations Suspense Account	112	7	0				
	£14,320	8	10		£14,320	8	10

The Examinations, 1910.

The following table gives the statistics of The Institution Examinations since they were established, the proportion of successful Candidates each year being shown.

Table D.

Years.	Preliminary Examinations.			Professional Examinations.		
	Candidates.	Passed.	Percentage.	Candidates.	Passed.	Percentage.
1881	13	6	46·15	2	1	50·00
1882	30	17	56·66	—	—	—
1883	44	22	50·00	25	22	88·00
1884	51	30	58·82	36	23	63·89
1885	46	37	80·43	43	31	72·09
1886	46	34	78·26	56	38	67·85
1887	53	39	73·58	58	45	77·59
1888	48	39	81·25	73	52	71·23
1889	51	41	80·39	71	51	71·83
1890	53	44	83·01	96	70	72·91
1891	76	60	78·94	92	68	73·91
1892	83	64	77·10	125	93	74·40
1893	77	57	74·00	149	100	67·11
1894	97	66	68·00	182	129	70·87
1895	121	80	66·11	196	141	71·93
1896	117	78	68·37	212	143	67·45
1897	133	91	68·42	236	151	63·97
1898	127	95	74·80	265	169	63·77
1899	145	112	77·25	290	184	63·44
1900	131	102	77·86	325	193	59·38
1901	142	111	78·45	362	246	67·95
1902	165	133	80·06	369	241	65·30
1903	151	108	71·52	424	294	69·34
1904	152	108	71·05	480	370	77·08
1905	132	88	66·66	505	399	79·00
1906	190	106	55·78	535	349	65·23
1907	171	102	59·64	554	422	76·17
1908	160	106	66·25	468	351	75·00
1909	137	95	69·34	540	356	65·93
1910	130	95	73·08	623	437	70·14
Totals	3,072	2,166	70·51	7,392	5,169	69·93

Among the 623 Candidates who came up for the Professional Examinations were 50 who had been referred back in their typical subjects and presented themselves for re-examination. Of the 8 "Land "Agency" Candidates in this category 6 passed, of

the 17 "Valuation" Candidates 15 passed, and of the 25 "Building and Quantity Surveyor" Candidates 18 passed, thus completing their respective examinations.

Table E shows the number of candidates who sat in the different sub-divisions of the Professional Examinations, the number who succeeded in passing, the number who failed in their typical subject, and the percentage of candidates who passed.

Those candidates who merely came up for re-examination in their typical subject are not included in this table.

TABLE E.

	Sub-Division I. Land Agency.			Sub-Division II. Valuation.			Sub-Division III. Building and Quantities.			Percentage of Candidates who Passed.
	Examined.	Passed.	Referred Back in Typical Subject.	Examined.	Passed.	Referred Back in Typical Subject.	Examined.	Passed.	Referred Back in Typical Subject.	
Intermediate Examination, Students	28	24	—	77	65	4	35	23	8	80·00
Intermediate Examination, Non-Students	74	41	2	110	79	3	91	50	17	61·81
Final Examination	30	24	—	69	49	13	39	28	9	73·18
Direct Fellowship Examination	2	2	—	10	8	2	8	5	—	75·00
Totals	134	91	2	266	201	22	173	106	34	69·45

The Council are glad to note that 22 Scottish and 5 Irish candidates presented themselves for examination

this year, numbers which would seem to indicate that The Institution is beginning to occupy an authorative position in those countries similar to that it already holds in England.

The Examiners.

Four names which have appeared for many years in the list of Institution examiners now drop out, viz: His Honour Judge Philbrick, K.C., Mr. T. M. Rickman, Mr. J. D. Wallis, and Mr. Percivall Currey, the latter, however, only temporarily. The Council have been fortunate in securing the services of Mr. J. Dawbarn Young, Mr. E. B. I'Anson, Mr. Graham H. Mould, Mr. E. C. Pinks, and Mr. Samuel Walker, in their place.

On behalf of The Institution they wish to offer their thanks to these gentlemen, and to all those who have undertaken the arduous duties of examiners; more particularly do they feel called upon to mention those, other than Members of the Council, who have acted in an honorary capacity, viz., in the legal subjects: Mr. J. Willis Bund, Mr. E. J. Castle, K.C., Mr. R. F. Colam, Mr. Graham H. Mould, Mr. H. A. Rigg, K.C., and Mr. J. Dawbarn Young; and in the professional subjects: Mr. H. Cheston, Mr. J. J. Done, Mr. J. E. Drower, Mr. W. H. Eve, Mr. E. J. Harper, Mr. T. W. A. Hayward, Mr. F. Lee, Mr. C. John Mann, Mr. P. T. Maw, Mr. J. Douglass Mathews, Mr. H. P. Monckton, Mr. E. C. Pinks, and Mr. S. Walker.

The Council would also offer their thanks to those Members of the Irish, Scottish, and Counties Palatine Provincial Committees who were responsible for successfully carrying out the arrangements for the examinations in Dublin, Glasgow, and Manchester respectively.

Scholarships at the Universities.

Candidates presented themselves for each of The Institution Scholarships for which competitive examinations were held last July, Mr. D. Walker heading the list in respect of that tenable at Cambridge University, while Mr. W. O. Jones was successful at the University of North Wales, Bangor, and Mr. L. A. Thompson at Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

The examination for the first of the Scholarships of £80, tenable for three years, recently established at Oxford University, will be held this summer, and there is every reason to hope that, as the work of the new Department of Rural Economy at that University becomes known, a number of competitors, equal to those who now present themselves for that tenable at Cambridge, may be attracted.

The object of the Council in founding these Scholarships has been to advance the scientific standard of the profession by offering to prospective surveyors the means of continuing their studies to the highest technical and scientific point, thus enabling them later to take a foremost place in the profession.

In the case of the Bangor and Armstrong College Scholarships this object has not altogether been attained, the failure being due probably to the fact that, apart from Oxford and Cambridge, no University can tap a large enough area to ensure a sufficient number of suitable candidates coming forward annually.

The conditions governing these Scholarships have therefore been revised, and in future the two candidates heading the list in the Competitive Examination each year will be permitted to select not only the University, other than Oxford or Cambridge, at which they will hold their Scholarships, but also the course of study they elect to follow, provided that the latter is approved by

the Council as bearing on and of advantage in the training and practice of a surveyor. The first of these Scholarships will be worth £60 per annum for three years, and has been named The Surveyors' Institution (Penfold) Scholarship as a memorial to the late Mr. J. W. Penfold, Honorary Secretary of The Institution for so many years; the others will be worth £50 per annum for a similar period.

The Publications.

The Gold Medal for the best Paper read at an Ordinary General Meeting during the Session 1908-9 was awarded to Mr. J. G. Head, Fellow, for his Paper entitled "Giant London. The Evolution of a Great "City; its growth in size and value," a contribution of real literary merit, evincing notable antiquarian knowledge and research, and not lacking in present-day interest to surveyors.

During the present Session no less than four evenings were found necessary for the consideration of the important subject of town planning, introduced by Papers from the pens of Mr. W. R. Davidge and Mr. John Willmot. Other Papers read at the Ordinary General Meetings were: "Local Taxation and the Compound "Householder," by Mr. C. P. Hall, Professional Associate of Council; "Land Banks and Small Holdings," by Mr. Robert M. D. Sanders; "The Report of the Royal "Commission on Poor Law," by Mr. T. A. Dickson, Fellow; and Papers by Mr. R. F. Grantham, Associate, and Mr. William Menzies, Fellow, on the maintenance of roads under the changed conditions which now prevail; all subjects of wide professional interest. In addition to these, Mr. Julian Rogers' forty years review of The Institution history will prove of a more intimate interest to Members and deserves special mention.

The Council have decided that from the beginning of the current year the *Professional Notes* shall be issued every three months, and that each volume shall end with the calendar year. It is hoped that this change may prove of value to Members by placing this publication in their hands more frequently, and of convenience to those who wish to bind the several parts.

Mr J. T. Ryde's Paper on "The Rating of Property belonging to Corporations," which obtained the President's Prize for the best Paper read at the Junior Meetings during the past Session, appears in the March issue of the *Professional Notes*.

The Library.

During the year a valuable and interesting addition has been made to the Library through the generosity of Messrs. Clutton, in the shape of a beautiful copy of Sinclair's *Hortus Gramineus Woburnensis*, 1816. The edition of this work containing the plates of actual grasses was a small one, and the thanks of The Institution are due to Messrs. Clutton for their kindness in presenting the copy in question.

The Reference Library has been strengthened by the purchase of a complete set of the *Justice of the Peace* Law Reports from 1838, and a similar set of the *Law Journal* Law Reports from 1823. These volumes supplement the Law Reports which were already in the Library, and perfect The Institution collection of works of reference to legal decisions.

Members continue to make an increasing use of the Loan Library, over 1,250 books having been circulated during the past year. It is interesting to note that the younger members are apparently fully aware of their advantages in this respect, one-fifth of the books con-

tained therein having been continuously out on loan during the few months preceding the Examination.

The Forestry Museum.

Dr. A. B. Rendle is continuing the reorganisation of the Forestry Museum, and a third case, showing longitudinal and transverse sections of the principal species of British timber, will shortly be complete. In this work he has received much assistance from Mr. M. C. Duchesne, who has been indefatigable in obtaining specimens from owners of woodlands.

The Provincial Committees.

The following table shows the membership of the several Provincial Committees and their Chairman:—

Table F. Provincial Committees.

Committee	Chairman.	Number of Members.
Northumberland and Durham ...	H. T. Peirson ...	53
Cumberland and Westmorland ...	H. J. Watson ...	30
Lancashire and Cheshire	J. D. Wallis ...	199
Yorkshire	J. Hepper ...	154
Salop and Hereford and Mid-Wales...	W. Forrester Addie	42
Derby and Stafford	T. A Fuller ...	71
Nottingham and Lincoln	Joshua Walker	66
Monmouth and South Wales... ...	S. H. Cowper Coles	72
Warwick and Worcester	R. Fowler ...	95
Leicester, Northampton, and Rutland	D. T. Thring ...	62
Cambridge, Huntingdon, Norfolk, and Suffolk	W. P. Theakston	103
Berks, Bucks, and Oxon	D. Haslam, Jun.	96
Beds, Essex, Herts, and Middlesex ...	H. T. Eve ...	227
Devon and Cornwall	A. Body ...	86
Somerset, Glo'ster, and North Wilts	H. B. Napier ...	93
Hants, Dorset, and South Wilts ...	J. H. Blizard ...	171
Kent	H. M. Cobb ...	154
Surrey	J. A. Eggar ...	160
Sussex	R. H. Powell ...	106
North Wales	W. C. Pickering	17
Irish Committee	C. Dickinson ...	185
Scottish Committee	J. I. Davidson...	118

During the year a large number of Provincial Committee Meetings have been attended by the President, other Members of the Council, and the Secretary. The average attendance at these Meetings tends to increase, a gratifying indication that Members in the provinces realise both the advantage and the duty of taking their part in the work of The Institution. When the incidence of taxation in connection with real estate is being revolutionised and other fundamental changes are advocated, it is of the utmost importance that Members should neglect no opportunity of meeting for the free discussion of the questions involved, in order that the Council may be kept in touch with the feeling of the profession throughout the country, and that so far as possible uniformity in dealing with these important matters may be secured.

The Council desire to thank those Provincial Chairmen who have acted upon the Standing Committees of The Institution, and to acknowledge the value of their assistance in dealing with the many and intricate matters which come before them.

Their thanks are also due to the Honorary Provincial Secretaries on whom the responsibility mainly falls of seeing that the questions submitted to their Committees are dealt with with promptitude, the Meetings regularly called, and subjects of interest provided for discussion.

The following is a list of the lectures provided by the Council during the year at Meetings of the Provincial Committees :—

[See next page.]

Provincial Committee.	Subject.
Somerset, Gloucester and North Wilts	Address on Fruit Growing.
Devon and Somerset	Address on Cider Making.
Leicester, Northants, and Rutland	Changes in the Law relating to the Compulsory Acquisition of Land.
South Wales	Changes in the Law relating to the Compulsory Acquisition of Land.
Lancashire and Cheshire ...	Changes in the Law relating to the Compulsory Acquisition of Land.
Somerset, Gloucester, and North Wilts	The Taxation of Land Values.
Devon and Somerset	Agricultural Experiments in Devonshire.
Derby and Staffordshire ...	The Equipment and Finance of Small Holdings.
Hants, Dorset, and South Wilts	The Taxation of Land Values.

Besides the above a number of Papers have been read or addresses given by Members before the different Committees, *e.g.*, on "Recent Experiments in Wheat Growing," at Shrewsbury, by Mr. J. C. Brown; on "The Land "Clauses of the Finance Bill, 1909," at Reading and Croydon by Mr. Howard Martin, and at Leeds by Mr. J. H. Hanson; and on "The Production and Dis- "tribution of Milk from a Sanitary Standpoint," at Southampton by Mr. J. H. Blizzard.

The Institution Premises.

Arrangements have been completed with the Ecclesiastical Commissioners and the Middlesex County Council for an extension of The Institution premises

over the yard at the back, thus permitting a considerable and necessary enlargement of the Council Room, Lecture Hall, and ground floor offices.

The Middlesex County Council have obtained permission to divert Sanctuary Street further north in order to extend the Guildhall, and the addition to The Institution buildings will have a frontage to the new street.

Miscellaneous.

The Council have to report with regret the resignation of Mr. J. H. Sabin as Professional Associate of Council, a position which he had held for nineteen years to the great advantage of The Institution and the class which he represented. They were glad to note that Members recognised his exceptional services to The Institution and position in the profession by electing him a Fellow at the last Ballot.

Since their Report of twelve months ago a number of Parliamentary measures have engaged the attention of the Council, the first in importance naturally being the Finance Bill of last Session; others being the Irish Land Bill and the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Bill, both of which have since obtained a place upon the Statute Book; and the House Letting and Rating (Scotland) Bill, which was withdrawn. Copies of the Memoranda drawn up by the Council on these Bills will be found in the *Professional Notes.*

This is not the place either to criticise or to approve the proposals contained in any measure, but the Council may perhaps be permitted to congratulate Members on the official recognition obtained by The Institution in Clauses 33 and 34 of the Finance Bill as it passed the House of Commons. In the former the President of The

Institution was associated with the Lord Chief Justice and the Master of the Rolls in the work of drawing up a panel of referees under the Land Clauses, and rules for their guidance, and in the latter, Fellows of The Institution were specially mentioned as qualified for inclusion in the panel of referees.

The professional training and qualifications, of which membership of The Institution is a guarantee, have received further recognition in the appointments which have been made to the Valuation Department of the Inland Revenue.

The Council are happy to state that the friendly relations which have for so long existed between The Institution and the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries have received further confirmation by a request from that Department that the Council would nominate two representatives as members of the Rural Education Conference which the Boards of Education and Agriculture propose jointly to constitute for the discussion of questions connected with education in rural districts, and for the periodical exchange of views between representative agriculturists and the two Departments. Mr. Howard Martin and Mr. J. H. Sabin have consented to represent The Institution in this capacity.

In their last Report the Council referred to the steps they were taking to clear up the uncertainty aroused by the learned judge's comments in *The Marquis of Salisbury* v. *Keymer*, with reference to surveyors charging reduced fees for mortgage valuations when no advance is made. They drew up a statement making known the reasons which underlay the practice referred to, and they have reason to believe that these reasons have been recognised as sufficient to justify the practice.

ADDENDUM.

The Council have decided to issue annually a short statement drawing attention to the main points dealt with by the examiners in their reports. For convenience of reference they propose to take each Sub-Division separately, afterwards dealing with those subjects which are to a greater or lesser degree common to each.

Sub-Division I.—More attention should be given to the Construction and Arrangement of Farm Homesteads. The examiner reports that few of the candidates showed sufficient technical knowledge of building construction and drawing, while they were also deficient in a knowledge of prices.

With some exceptions the work on Agricultural Chemistry, in both the Intermediate and the Final Examination, showed a lack of any real knowledge of the subject. Organic chemistry cannot be understood unless the principles of inorganic chemistry have first been mastered, but in many cases a knowledge of these principles was altogether wanting.

The examiners in Forestry report that a number of candidates failed to make any real attempt to ground themselves thoroughly in the subject, appearing to confine their studies to questions asked in previous examinations. Except for the immediate purpose of passing the examination, superficial knowledge thus acquired is quite worthless.

Sub-Division II.—As a rule candidates have been well grounded in the use of valuation tables, but many showed a lack of experience in making use of their

knowledge. In the Intermediate Examination a candidate stated that freehold rack rents should be taken on tables for a term (arbitrary), and that the probable rent at the end of that term should be estimated and capitalised by the deferred calculation. The examiner points out that this method is bad in theory, and usually so in practice. He also reports that only a minority recognised the importance of distinguishing between a perpetual and a limited interest.

The examiner in this subject for the Final Examination states that many candidates had only a rudimentary knowledge of the way in which to prepare valuations for land taken under the Lands Clauses, Licensing, and other Acts, especially with regard to trade claims and cases where Section 92 of the Lands Clauses Act was excluded from the special Act.

Sub-Division III.—In the subject of Quantities a large proportion of candidates showed a lack of knowledge of the main principles upon which this art is based. Many had evidently been in the hands of those who make it their business to prepare candidates for these examinations, and without wishing in any way to disparage the work done by those gentlemen, the examiners point out that the acquisition of a superficial knowledge just sufficient to obtain pass marks in the examination is not likely to be of any real value to a candidate in the future. Want of preparation and knowledge was specially noticeable in construction and pricing, and measurements in all trades were often careless and inaccurate.

In Construction and Working Drawings many candidates failed to answer satisfactorily questions dealing with carpenter's and joiner's work and the jointing of

steelwork. The average of draughtsmanship was much lower than should be the case. The examiner in Iron and Timber Roofs also commented on the fact that the candidates were deficient in knowledge of jointing in designing iron roofs.

In Specifications of Building the examiner reports that not only the technical but the purely literary part was poor and would lead to difficulties in real practice. The need for better grounding referred to under the head of Quantities applies equally to this subject.

General.—In the various legal subjects and copyholds a fair theoretical knowledge appears to have been shown, but the examiners are almost unanimous in commenting upon the failure of candidates to adapt their theory to practice.

In the subject of Book-keeping a failure in many cases to understand the preparation of Profit and Loss Accounts and Balance Sheets is mentioned.

The reports of the examiners throughout make it clear that a common fault on the part of candidates is their failure to read the questions carefully. They often waste time by including in their answers much for which they are not asked, when by careful attention to the question they might obtain higher marks by shorter answers in less time.

BALANCE SHEET

1909. ASSETS.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
CASH at Bankers and in hands of Secretary :—		
Current Account (including £50 Petty Cash) ...	528 17 8	
Library, Forestry, and Geological Account ...	256 9 0	
"Prize Endowment" Capital Account	0 14 9	
"Prize Endowment" Income Account	112 2 8	
Reserve Fund	98 13 6	
Scholarship Fund	13 16 0	
		1,010 13 7
Furniture		1,333 11 5
Library, Forestry, and Geological Account		5,214 11 4
INVESTMENTS :—		
The Premises No. 11, Great George Street, Westminster, S.W., at cost		20,230 19 8
£ s. d.		
3,314 18 7 India 3 °/₀ Stock at 84¾		2,809 8 0
2,269 8 11 New South Wales 3 °/₀ Inscribed Stock at 86½		1,963 1 5
Library, Forestry, and Geological Account.		
£ s. d.		
2,959 19 3 Consols 2½ °/₀ Stock at 83		2,456 15 4
Prize Endowment Account.		
503 1 11 India 3 °/₀ Stock at 84¾	426 7 5	
278 0 3 Midland Railway 2½°/₀ Debenture Stock at 71	197 7 9	
254 0 0 North British Railway No. 1 Preference Stock at 107	271 15 7	
413 16 8 New 2½ °/₀ Stock at 81¼	336 4 9	
440 10 8 India 3½ °/₀ Stock at 98	431 14 5	
500 0 0 Courage and Co. 3½ °/₀ B Debenture Stock at 70½	352 10 0	
		2,015 19 11
Reserve Fund.		
4,347 12 9 Consols 2½°/₀ at cost price		3,757 13 5
Scholarship Fund.		
1,172 19 1 Consols 2½ °/₀ at cost price (£85⅛ °/₀) ...		1,000 0 0
Penfold Scholarship Fund.		
1,600 0 0 Canadian Pacific Railway 4 °/₀ Debenture Stock at cost price (£105¾ °/₀)		1,709 2 9
Amounts due, but unpaid at date, viz. :—		
Subscriptions and Entrance Fees	798 0 0	
Fees for hire of Rooms	102 18 0	
Rent of Offices, &c. (Tribunal of Appeal)	33 5 0	
Rent of No. 11, Great George Street, S.W.	174 7 6	
		1,108 10 6
		£44,610 7 4

N.B.—The above Assets do not include the value of the Institution Premises No. 12, Great George Street, S.W., held on a Lease for 999 years from 1895.

31st DECEMBER, 1909.

LIABILITIES. 1909.

	£	s.	d.
Accumulations Account	25,535	19	5
Library, Forestry, and Geological Account	7,927	15	8
"Prize Endowment" Capital Account	2,016	14	8
"Prize Endowment" Income Account	112	2	8
Examinations Suspense Account	1,192	16	0
Reserve Fund	3,856	6	11
Scholarship Fund	1,013	16	0
"Penfold" Scholarship Fund	1,709	2	9
Due to Sundry Creditors	1,245	13	3
	£44,610	7	4

Examined with books, vouchers, &c., and found correct.

TANSLEY WITT, F.C.A., Chartered Accountant.
3rd May, 1910.

H. C. NEWMARCH,
STANLEY HICKS,
Auditors.

RECEIPTS. FOR THE YEAR ENDED

1909.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Jan. 1st.	To Cash at Bankers and in hands of Secretary : On Current Account including £50 Petty Cash in the hands of the Secretary ...			843 9 8
Dec. 31st.	RECEIPTS ON INCOME ACCOUNT :—			
	To 1,680 Fellows' Subscriptions at £3 3*s.*	5,292 0 0		
	„ 54 Fellows' Subscriptions, Arrears at £3 3*s.*	170 2 0		
	„ 27 Fellows' Subscriptions paid in advance for 1910 at £3 3*s.*	85 1 0		
	„ 4 Fellows' Subscriptions reinstated at £3 3*s.*	12 12 0		
	„ Differences on transfer	28 7 0	5,588 2 0	
	„ 1,790 Professional Associates', Associates', and Colonial Fellows' Subscriptions at £2 2*s.*	3,759 0 0		
	„ 106 Professional Associates', Associates', and Colonial Fellows', Arrears of Subscriptions at £2 2*s.*	222 12 0		
	„ 1 Professional Associates' part Arrears	1 1 0		
	„ 12 Professional Associates', Associates', and Colonial Fellows' Subscriptions paid in advance for 1910 at £2 2*s.*	25 4 0		
	„ 21 Professional Associates reinstated at £2 2*s.*	44 2 0		
	„ 2 Transfers from Fellows at £2 2*s.* ...	4 4 0		
		4,056 3 0		
	Less Subscriptions refunded ...	6 6 0	4,049 17 0	
	„ 344 Students' Subscriptions at £1 1*s.*	361 4 0		
	„ 26 Students' Subscriptions paid in advance for 1910 at £1 1*s.*	27 6 0		
		388 10 0		
	Less Subscription refunded ...	1 1 0	387 9 0	
	„ Hire of Rooms		358 1 0	
	„ Dividends and Interest		192 12 6	
	„ Rent of Leasehold Property, 11, Great George Street, S.W.	855 0 0		
	Less Ground Rent on same ...	313 10 0	541 10 0	
	„ "Penfold Bequest"		500 0 0	
				11,617 11 6
	EXAMINATIONS ACCOUNT :—			
	To Candidates' Examination Fees ...	1,703 2 0		
	„ Sale of Syllabus	44 0 4	1,747 2 4	
	Less Examiners' and Moderators' Fees, Hire of Hall, and Sundry Disbursements		1,071 4 2	675 18 2
	RECEIPTS ON CAPITAL ACCOUNT :—			
	To 33 Fellows' Entrance Fees at £5 5*s.* ...	173 5 0		
	„ 50 Fellows' Difference of Entrance Fees at £2 2*s.*	105 0 0	278 5 0	
	„ 216 Professional Associates', Associates', and Colonial Fellows' Entrance Fees at £3 3*s.*		680 8 0	
				958 13 0
	RESERVE FUND :—			
	To Dividends			98 13 6
	SCHOLARSHIP FUND :—			
	To Dividends...			13 16 0
	EXAMINATIONS "SUSPENSE" ACCOUNT :—			
	To Examination Fees received		619 10 0	
	Less Entrance Fees transferred ...	246 15 0		
	„ Subscriptions transferred ...	101 17 0		
	„ Examination Fees transferred...	149 2 0		
	„ Examination Fees refunded ...	9 9 0	507 3 0	112 7 0
				£14,320 8 10

31st December, 1909. PAYMENTS.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Payments on Income Account:—			
By *Transactions:* Publication and Reporting		615 9 9	
„ *Professional Notes*		301 8 10	
„ Salaries and Pension		2,809 3 3	
„ Wages and Pension		335 10 0	
„ Council Medal		13 15 0	
„ Conversazione		201 4 3	
„ Sundry Disbursements and Housekeeper's Account		425 6 8	
„ Postage and Receipt Stamps, General...	292 4 1		
„ „ *Transactions* ...	295 15 2		
„ „ *Professional Notes*	87 17 10		
		675 17 1	
„ Corporation Duty, Rates, Taxes and Insurance		834 1 11	
„ Staff, Endowment, Insurance Premiums		475 9 8	
„ Fuel, Light, and Water		292 5 10	
„ Ground Rent, less Tax	950 0 0		
Less Amount received from the Tribunal of Appeal ...	120 0 0		
		830 0 0	
„ Repairs		281 7 11	
„ Stationery, Books of Account, &c. ...		63 11 6	
„ Country Meeting		112 18 0	
„ Printing, Lithography, and Binding ...		501 11 10	
„ Parliamentary Papers and Periodicals		40 16 6	
„ Provincial Committees and Junior Meetings		654 6 4	
„ Second Moiety of Subscription, Agricultural Department, Building Fund, Cambridge University		500 0 0	
„ Law Charges		556 12 11	
„ University Scholarships		382 14 8	
			10,903 11 11
Scholarship Investment Fund :—			
By Purchase of £1,172 19*s.* 1*d.*, Consols 2½%			1,000 0 0
Penfold Scholarship Fund :—			
By Purchase of £1,600 0*s.* 0*d.*, Canadian Pacific Railway 4% Debenture Stock			1,709 2 9
Payments on Capital Account :—			
By Furniture			66 7 0
„ Cash at Bankers and in the hands of the Secretary, including £50 Petty Cash			641 7 2

LIBRARY, FORESTRY, AND

1909.		£	s.	d.
Dec. 31st.	To Purchase of Books, Maps, &c.:—			
	General Library £73 6 6			
	Loan Library 17 4 0			
		90	10	6
	„ Amount of Depreciation written off	422	16	0
	„ Photographs	1	15	8
	„ Annual Subscription to Palæontographical Society ...	1	1	0
	„ Annual Subscription to Topographical Society ...	1	1	0
	„ Furniture and Fittings	147	17	1
	„ Clerical Assistance	11	10	0
	„ Printing	9	3	0
	„ Insurance	4	14	0
	„ Binding	8	6	9
	„ Sundries	3	1	6
	„ Decrease in value of Investments	29	12	0
	„ Balance carried forward*	7,927	15	8

* Cash in hand	£256 9 0		
£2,959 19*s.* 3*d.* Consols 2½ % at 83	2,456 15 4		
Value of Books, Forestry, and Geological Collection ...	5,214 11 4		
		£8,659	4 2

ACCUMULATIONS

1909.		£	s.	d.
Dec. 31st.	To Decrease in value of Investments	69	7	2
	„ Depreciation on Furniture	69	0	0
	„ Amount transferred to "Penfold" Scholarship Fund ...	1,209	2	9
	„ Amount transferred to Scholarship Fund	1,000	0	0
	„ Balance carried forward	25,535	19	5
		£27,883	9	4

GEOLOGICAL ACCOUNT.

1909.		£	s.	d.
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward	8,192	12	4
Dec. 31st.	„ Increased Values at this date, viz. :—			
	Books purchased £90 10 6			
	Books presented 28 15 6			
		119	6	0
	„ Dividends	67	2	10
	„ Donations	280	3	0
		£8,659	4	2
1910.				
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward...	£7,927	15	8

ACCOUNT.

1909.		£	s.	d.
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward	26,190	9	3
Dec. 31st.	„ Excess of Income applicable to 1909	58	8	11
	„ Excess of Receipts over Payments on Examinations Account	675	18	2
	„ Excess of Receipts over Payments on Capital Account	958	13	0
		£27,883	9	4
1910.				
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward	£25,535	19	5

"PRIZE ENDOWMENT"

1909.				£	s.	d.
Dec. 31st.	To Decrease in value of Investments			35	6	1
„	Balance carried forward			2,016	14	8
	"Penfold Gift"—					
	£503 1*s.* 11*d.* India 3 % Stock at 84¾	426	7 5			
	"Beadel Bequest"—					
	£278 0*s.* 3*d.* Midland Railway 2½ % Debenture Stock at 71	197	7 9			
	Cash in hand	0	14 9			
	"Crawter Bequest"—					
	£254 North British Railway No. 1 Preference Stock at 107	271	15 7			
	"Daniel Watney Gift"—					
	£413 16*s.* 8*d.* New 2½ % Stock at 81¼	336	4 9			
	"Driver Bequest"—					
	£440 10*s.* 8*d.* India 3½ % Stock at 98	431	14 5			
	"Galsworthy Gift"—					
	£500 Courage & Co. 3½% B Debenture Stock at 70½	352	10 0			
				£2,052	0	9

"PRIZE ENDOWMENT"

1909.				£	s.	d.
Dec. 31st.	To Paid for "Beadel Prize"			5	0	0
„	Paid for "Driver Prize"			15	0	0
„	Paid for "Crawter Prize"			10	0	0
„	Paid for "Penfold Prize"			14	5	6
„	Paid for "Galsworthy Prize"			19	13	6
„	Balance carried forward			112	2	8
				£176	1	8

CAPITAL ACCOUNT.

1909.		£	*s.*	*d.*
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward	2,052	0	9
		£2,052	0	9
1910.				
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward	£2,016	14	8

INCOME ACCOUNT.

1909.		£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward				104	5	4
Dec. 31st.	,, Dividends, viz.:—						
	"Beadel" Bequest	6	11	9			
	"Driver" Bequest	14	11	10			
	"Crawter" Bequest	9	12	6			
	"Penfold" Gift	14	5	6			
	"Daniel Watney" Gift	9	15	6			
	"Galsworthy" Gift	16	11	1			
					71	8	2
	Excess of Expenditure on the "Driver" Prize transferred to Revenue General Prize Account					8	2
					£176	1	8
1910.							
Jan. 1st.	By Balance brought forward				£112	2	8

APPENDIX TO VOL. XLII.

Obituary.

FRANK AUSTEN (Fellow), of the firm of H. J. Austen and Sons, Wadhurst, who died in October, 1909, became a Member of The Institution in 1891, and was one of the best known auctioneers and valuers in East and Mid-Sussex and East Kent.

The Wadhurst Christmas Fat Stock Show, of which he was the founder, and the local branch of the Hop Defence League, have lost in his death their honorary secretary and treasurer.

Mr. Austen was a member of the Parish and Rural District Councils, the Wadhurst and Trent Wells Farmers' Clubs, and the Holmesdale Lodge of Freemasons, in which he was held in high esteem.

PATRICK FORSTALL COMBER (Fellow), of Dublin, was a retired member of the Association of Surveyors of His Majesty's Service, and surveyor to the Bray township since 1880.

He was responsible, in some cases conjointly with Mr. W. G. Stripe, M.I.C.E., for the carrying out of many large works in the neighbourhood, including Bray sea wall and promenade and harbour, and the supplying of water to the towns of Athlone, Tipperary, and Carrickmacross.

He became a Member of The Institution in 1897, and

was also a member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, the Municipal and County Engineers' Association, the British Institute of Public Health, and the Royal Sanitary Institute.

Mr. Comber's death occurred in May, 1910.

ROBERT FORREST (Fellow), who died in February, had held a foremost place in the business life of South Wales for nearly forty years. He was born in Glasgow, and came to Wales as a young man, becoming connected with the Glamorganshire estates of Lord Plymouth.

At various later dates he took over the control of Lord Plymouth's other property in Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Flintshire, and also the Wenool Castle estate belonging to Mrs. Jenner, the Romilly estate, and Messrs. Vachell's estate in Glamorganshire.

One of his earliest works was the development of the Cardiff suburb, Penarth.

When Barry Island was submitted for auction, few save Mr. Forrest saw the possibilities of the property, and it was purchased by him on behalf of Lord Windsor (now Lord Plymouth) at the reserve price, having failed to find a purchaser at the sale. It proved a remarkably successful venture, and was followed in course of time by the construction of the Barry Docks and Railway, of which Mr. Forrest was a director.

He had served as High Sheriff for Glamorganshire, and in other official positions which enabled him to give practical evidence of his sympathy with the objects of the Small Holdings Act.

Mr. Forrest was a representative of the Board of Trade and the Board of Agriculture in the South Wales district, and a Life Governor of the Royal Agricultural Society.

HARRY FULLER (Fellow), whose death took place in March, 1910, after an illness extending over thirteen years, had been a Member of The Institution since 1884. He was a son of Mr. Robert W. Fuller, who, in 1836, founded the firm of Messrs. Fuller, Moon, and Fuller, auctioneers and surveyors of Croydon, and was at one time himself an active member of the firm. Previous to his illness Mr. Fuller took an active interest in local life and was extremely well known, especially in hunting circles.

RICHARD CUNNINGHAM GLEN (Associate), whose death occurred in May, 1909, was the second son of the late Mr. William Cunningham Glen, Principal Adviser to the Local Government Board, and the younger brother of Mr. Alexander Glen, K.C. He was educated at Charterhouse and Christ's College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. and LL.B. in 1879, and M.A. in 1883. He was called to the bar at the Middle Temple in 1879 and joined the North-Eastern Circuit, enjoying for many years an extensive practice in matters connected with public health and local government, in which class of litigation he was a skilful and experienced advocate.

Mr. Glen was joint author of "The London Building "Act, 1894," and editor of "The General Orders relating "to the Poor Laws," and "Fry's Union Assessment "Committee Acts."

He had been a keen volunteer, retiring with the rank of Major from the Inns of Court Regiment. He was elected an Associate of The Institution in 1895.

CHARLES RICHARD HEARN (Fellow), of Tyrone died in March, 1910.

After managing the estates of the Earl of Dartney in Co. Monaghan he became in 1895 the agent for the Earl of Caledon's estates in Tyrone and Armagh.

He had been a Member of The Institution since 1895.

JAMES HENRY (Fellow), of Glasgow, died in February, 1910.

He came to Glasgow in early youth, entering the office of the then joint city assessors, Messrs. Donaldson and Houston.

In 1883 he succeeded Mr. W. Campbell as City Assessor, and during his *regime* the city made a record development as regards its bounds and rental and rating strength, Hillside, Pollokshields, Govanhill, Langside, and Kinning Park being incorporated into Greater Glasgow. He was responsible for the readjustment of the parliamentary divisions of the city, the municipal wards, and the registrarial districts. Mr. Henry retired two years previous to his death, having been in the service of the corporation for half a century.

THOMAS NELSON HILL (Fellow), of Glasgow, who died in August, 1909, received his training in the office of the late Thomas D. Smellie, F.S.I., of that city, and was associated with him as apprentice and assistant for twenty-five years.

Subsequently Mr. Hill was engaged in business on his own account, and enjoyed a good practice as a quantity surveyor.

He gave a great deal of time unostentatiously and ungrudgingly for the benefit of the profession, and for many years up to the time of his death acted as honorary secretary of the Glasgow Institute of Measurers. His

labours in connection with this institute included the preparation of the rules of measurement for the different kinds of work, and in the establishment and carrying out of a scheme of professional examinations for the younger members of the measuring profession. He also acted as honorary examiner in the subject of quantity surveying (Scottish practice) for The Institution. Mr. Hill was elected a Fellow of The Institution in 1891.

WILLIAM ROBERT MALLETT (Fellow), whose death took place in January last, was born in London, and went to Bromley in 1849. He was a member of the firm of Wadmore, Wadmore, and Mallett, of Great St. Helen's, E.C., successors to Wadmore and Baker, one of the oldest firms of architects in London. Mr. Mallett was their chief assistant for many years, during which time a number of important works were erected, and, on the retirement of Mr. Baker, he became a partner in the firm. Among the works in Bromley carried out from his designs are the chancel and transept of St. Mary's Church, Plaistow, and the vicarage and cemetery. Mr. Mallett was one of the oldest members of the Architectural Association, a late member of the Council of the Society of Architects, and had been a Fellow of The Surveyors' Institution since 1891.

In 1894 he became a member of the first Urban District Council of Bromley, being elected Vice-Chairman in 1897 and Chairman in 1898, a post he filled with zeal, tact, and ability. In 1903, on Bromley being incorporated, he was elected Alderman.

WILLIAM GALLOWAY MELLER (Fellow), of Manchester, whose death occurred in March last, had been a Member of The Institution since 1891. He

entered the office of Messrs. E. Meller and Son, land-agents and valuers, in the year 1858, and seven years later became a partner, having under his management several large estates in Lancashire and Cheshire.

EDWARD MILLARD (Fellow), London, whose death occurred in October last, was educated at the Royal Agricultural College, Cirencester, and became a Member of the Institution in 1891.

He served his articles in Bury St. Edmunds, afterwards entering the office of Messrs. Debenham and Co.

In 1880 he started business for himself, and enjoyed a considerable practice in the home counties, Berks. and Bucks. He had the management of numerous estates and a large advisory and consultative practice, and was frequently engaged in arbitration and compensation cases.

JOHN PARKER (Fellow), of Hereford, became a Member of the Institution in 1885.

For seven years, prior to 1881, he was Borough Surveyor for Bridgwater, and at the time of his death, which occurred in February, 1910, was Surveyor to the City of Hereford.

SAMUEL PARR (Fellow), who died in March, 1910, had been a Member of the Institution for twenty-seven years.

After passing through the workshops he was appointed, at the age of 24, Surveyor to Messrs. Cubitt and Co., of London, and continued with them for eleven years, during which time he was engaged in most of their very important works, including Bridgewater House, Hertford House, Dorchester House, Messrs.

Rothschild's Offices, St. Swithin's Lane, and he had the entire management of fitting up St. Paul's Cathedral for the Duke of Wellington's funeral.

After leaving Messrs. Cubitt's he designed and carried out, in conjunction with the late Mr. Alfred Strong, F.R.I.B.A., a large number of buildings of every description, and he also managed various estates, several of which he developed for building purposes.

JOHN WORNHAM PENFOLD (Honorary Member), for many years Honorary Secretary and latterly a Vice-President of The Surveyors' Institution, was born at Haslemere on December 3rd, 1828. He was the representative of one of the oldest families in his native place, and was closely identified with its growth from a quiet rural hamlet into a thriving town, the centre of one of the most popular residential neighbourhoods in the south of England. He had a large and, probably, a predominant share in its development, and it was owing in a great degree to his good taste and sound judgment that it was saved from the hand of the architectural philistine who has done so much to destroy the natural charms of so many of the picturesque neighbourhoods within fifty miles of London.

He knew the point, to a nicety, at which originality of design degenerates into the vulgar or grotesque, and had a keen eye for what was suitable to situation and surroundings, never destroying characteristic features where it was possible to preserve them, and avoiding, with unerring skill, the incongruities which so often attend endeavours to adapt ancient work to modern requirements. He was, consequently, peculiarly happy in dealing with the conversion of cottages and old farm-houses into the modern week-end residences which have

become so much the fashion in the last quarter of a century.

But it is not with his career as a successful architect that this memoir is concerned His works in this capacity speak for themselves, and have been sufficiently described and appraised in the professional journals.

He received his early education at Petersfield, later on at Rogate, and, later still, at a school on Wandsworth Common. His professional life commenced as a pupil in the office of the late Mr. Burns, where he made two life-long friends—Mr. Daniel MacGibbon, a distinguished architect and archæologist of Edinburgh, and Mr. John Alexander, well known for many years as chief clerk of the Clerkenwell Sessions, who survives him. After some time spent in the office of the late Mr. Charles Lee, a leading architect and one of the most eminent rating surveyors of his day, he started in business on his own account in Charlotte Row, Mansion House, subsequently migrating to Parliament Street, and, later on, when the block of buildings which divided it from King Street was pulled down, to Great George Street, where he remained until his retirement from practice.

He was a Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects, an early supporter of the Architectural Association, a member of the old Surveyors' Club, of the Surveyors' Association, and the Land Surveyors' Club, and rarely missed any of their social gatherings. He was also for some years connected with the Honourable Artillery Company, of which he had many amusing stories to tell. One of his most important professional appointments was the Surveyorship to the Goldsmiths' Company, for which, strictly on his merits, he was strongly recommended by the late Mr. John Clutton, who had a very high opinion of his skill and knowledge.

In this capacity it fell to his lot to carry out, or superintend, the reconstruction of the vast area of property belonging to the Company destroyed in the disastrous fire which threatened the whole of Cripplegate some years ago, and to settle the large and complicated fire insurance claims with the offices concerned.

When the establishment of The Surveyors' Institution was first mooted, in the early part of 1868, he threw himself at once into the movement, co-operating zealously with its founders, Mr. John Clutton and Mr. Edward Ryde, in calling the new Society into existence.

It became at once apparent that no fitter man could be found for the office of Honorary Secretary, to which he was unanimously elected at the first Ordinary General Meeting, retaining it for the long period of thirty-six years, during which he had the satisfaction of seeing The Institution develop from humble beginnings into a leading position among the professional societies of London. He resigned the office of Honorary Secretary in 1904 on the grounds of increasing deafness and the growing burden of years, and was at once elected a Vice-President, but, at his own wish, without succession to the Presidency, a position which in his opinion should only be held by a person in the full maturity of his powers. A year or two later he severed this connection also, in order to facilitate the promotion of younger men, and was elected, by acclamation, an Honorary Member of The Institution.

During his early official career, the Members, on two separate occasions, presented him with handsome services of plate, and on his retirement from the position of Honorary Secretary with the excellent portrait which hangs in the Lecture Hall of The Institution.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the value of his

services to The Institution in its early days. He had precisely the qualifications, and even the limitations, needed for successful pioneer work—a practical knowledge of all the branches of a many-sided profession, a clear view of essentials, and (perhaps most important of all for the beginning of things) a rooted mistrust of the new and experimental where established methods were available. So it came about that the constitution of the Society followed, at first, closely on existing models, approved by long experience. It is no injustice to him to say that he was lacking in the spirit of fresh initiative, and had no illusions of his own on the subject, but it is equally true that he was quite free from the obstructive instincts of meaner natures, and loyally followed where his constitutional caution prevented him from leading. But the day of new departures was not yet—they were to grow, later on, out of the necessities of the times, out of larger opportunities and increased material resources.

With the appointment of a paid Secretary, in May, 1869, much of the work which he had hitherto done single-handed naturally devolved on his new colleague, though for several years he continued to keep the controlling hand. But as time went on he gradually, and perhaps somewhat reluctantly, relaxed the rein, until he became—what he was admirably fitted to be—a wise counsellor in the background, ever ready with advice of the utmost value on occasions, and which could rarely with safety be disregarded, for he saw farther than most men into the heart of a difficult problem, and his judgment was rarely obscured or warped by passion or prejudice.

On the whole he leaned to the side of cunctation in all matters of real moment—an attitude which does not

always commend itself to a younger mind, but looking back along the avenue of years it is impossible to deny that he was right, for what is wise when the occasion is ripe, is often unwise, and even perilous, if prematurely attempted. It must be conceded that to some of the new departures during the first two decades of The Institution's history he was a reluctant convert. They were too much in the nature of experiments for one of his natural habits of mind, but he ultimately acquiesced in them, with one noticeable exception—the introduction of the system of Provincial Committees. Where others saw the promise of a larger loyalty and a quickening of corporate life he seemed to discern the elements of disaffection, if not the seeds of disintegration. Not that he said so in so many words—he was too reserved for that—but it cannot have escaped notice that he never attended a Provincial Committee Meeting, and could not be induced to take part in the summer gatherings which have done so much to popularise The Institution and make it a living force where it was previously little more than a name.

It was typical of him and his strong sense of duty that he rarely missed a Council Meeting, and, for nothing short of illness, an Ordinary General Meeting, but his voice was not often heard, either in deliberation or discussion, unless he was directly appealed to. Even then his words were few, and if they proved ineffective he would make no further attempts to enforce his views, for he hated mere logomachies and could never understand why plain issues could not be dealt with by plain people in a plain way.

He was, in reality, a shy man who sheltered himself behind a manner that suggested stoical composure, and was not without his emotional side, which showed itself,

though he was at pains to conceal it, on the occasions when he became the subject of generous appreciation, against which few men are proof.

In business he could be frank or cryptic according to the circumstances of the moment and the company in which he found himself. With those he trusted he was as open as the day, but an uncandid or bumptious person had no chance with him: he would riddle him with a species of dry irony of which he was master, and leave him with a sense of discomfiture which he found it hard to account for. With such he could be inscrutability incarnate.

It was this command of manner, coupled with inexhaustible patience, that made him such a good negotiator and fitted him so well for the important judicial duties which, in his later years, he was called upon to discharge in connection with the Tribunal of Appeal under the London Building Acts. No man knew better how to keep familiarity and personal disrespect at bay or was more keenly resentful of the sort of badinage which is sometimes a mere mask for malice or detraction.

He was endowed by nature with a quaint humour of a kind as rare as it was diverting. It was hard to say where it resided—whether in the voice, the manner, or the words—but it was probably in all of them. It would flicker fitfully round the most unlikely subjects. Nothing incongruous or bizarre escaped his notice, and he managed to extract an infinity of quiet fun, but without a trace of malice, out of the foibles of his fellow men, and could, when he chose to do so, invest the most trivial subject with an air of absurdity by placing it in unexpected lights and grotesque relations.

As has been said, he had only a few close personal friends, but they were the friends of a life-time, for he

was essentially a self-contained man, caring very little for general society and the ordinary amusements and recreations of life. He was not, however, without his hobbies, which he pursued after his own fashion and with the thoroughness which was part of his nature. All his tastes were quiet, refined, and intellectual. Though not exactly musical, he was for many years a subscriber to the Abbey Glee Club, and regularly attended its delightful meetings. Not a collector of books in the strict sense of the word he had in him the spirit of the bibliophile, especially in the field of archæology, and he loved to linger over quaint prints, and could extract an infinity of amusement out of the preposterous treatises on recondite subjects which preceded the era of exact knowledge and the dawn of modern science. He also dallied a little with the so-called science of heraldry, which, whatever its value as a minister to the self-consequence of individuals, is still waiting for a place in the family of useful arts.

Though careful in his private expenditure—for no man was less self-indulgent—he knew how to be not only liberal but munificent. The Surveyors' Institution has abundant reason to be grateful to his memory. Among his many benefactions, when alive, were the annual Gold and Silver Medals which he founded and endowed, and which bear his name; his large contributions to the Benevolent Fund; his gifts of Books and Pictures to the Library; and, after his death, a bequest in money under the provisions of his will. These gifts are necessarily common knowledge, but the record of his personal kindness to those who needed his help was written in water, and has left only occasional traces.

To his native town he was a most generous benefactor. There, in association with his two unmarried

sisters, he erected and endowed a beautiful Cottage Hospital—a model for institutions of its kind.

Some years before his death he was warned by increasing deafness and other signs that his physical health was failing, and gradually withdrew from practice, but his mental powers remained unimpaired to the last. Only a few weeks before his death the writer of this memoir paid him what each felt to be a valedictory visit, of a few hours' duration. The feebleness of his body was painfully apparent, but his humour was as bright and keen as in his best days. The end came with startling suddenness. He had gone to Sheringham for the benefit of the sea air, and died there after a brief illness. His funeral took place at Haslemere on Friday, July 9th, 1909, and was attended by a great company of friends and neighbours, and by many of the professional colleagues with whom he had worked for more years than fall to the lot of most busy men. There he rests, and there will linger for generations the memory of a kindly, able, and honourable man. [J. C. R.]

HENRY ONSLOW PIERCY (Fellow), of Lowthorpe, Yorkshire, for nearly fifty years agent to Mr. W. H. St. Quintin's Grimston, Garth, and Garton estates, died in October, 1909, having been a Member of The Institution since 1891.

He served his articles with the late Mr. John Gregory, agent to the late Earl of Kilmorey, and was afterwards assistant on the estates of Lord Norton and the late John Higginbottom.

At the time of his death Mr. PIERCY had been in practice on his own account for nearly fifty years. He was Chairman of the Commission of the Hull and Barmiston Drainage, and was a prominent Freemason.

BENJAMIN TABBERER (Fellow), a Member of The Institution since 1890, died in January last.

In 1870 he was appointed District Surveyor for Greenwich, to which Deptford was added by the London County Council in 1902.

He was a Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects, and served for many years on the Board of Examiners of that society.

For twelve years he acted as Honorary Secretary to the District Surveyors' Association, and subsequently served as President. He continued in practice as an architect and surveyor in Basinghall Street up to the time of his death. He was a member of the Barbers' Company and the Surveyors' Club.

GEORGE THOMAS (Fellow), of Cardiff and Barry, died in March, having been a Member of The Institution since 1891.

He was a Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects, and had been President of the Cardiff, South Wales, and Monmouthshire Architects' Society.

Mr. THOMAS was the architect of schools and public buildings in the neighbourhood of Cardiff and Barry.

GEORGE WATSON (Professional Associate), after acquiring a practical knowledge of surveying as a cadet in the New Zealand Government Survey Department, passed the examinations entitling him to serve as a surveyor in New Zealand, and was in full charge of a Government surveying party for five years.

Returning to England, he started practice in Victoria Street, S.W., becoming a Member of The Institution in 1890. He died in October, 1909.

HERBERT EDWARD WATSON (Fellow), who had been a Member of the Institution for nearly thirty years, died in July, 1909.

He was originally articled to an engineer, but owing to a break down in health he decided to enter a profession in which he would be able to be more in the open air.

He became resident agent in 1873 for the Duke of Bedford's Thorney estates, and, resigning this position eleven years later, he was appointed by the late Lord Leconfield as agent for his Yorkshire estates, and later for his Sussex estates also.

In 1906 Mr. Watson resigned the Yorkshire estates, and quite recently retired from business altogether.

He was one of the original members of the Land Agents' Society and Chairman of the High Level Drainage Commission, in connection with which his knowledge of engineering proved of considerable value. It was mainly due to his efforts that the Petworth Agricultural Society became an established and successful institution.

WILLIAM HENRY WELLS (Fellow) was agent for the Earl of Ilchester's estates in Dorset, Somerset, Wilts, and Devon.

In his early life Mr. WELLS went out to India, serving in the Public Works Department, until in 1879 ill-health necessitated his return to England. He then went to Wroxham Hall, Norwich, where for a short time he managed the estates of Mr. E. S. Trafford until he was appointed to the position which he held for some twenty-eight years up to the time of his sudden death in July, 1909.

Mr. WELLS became a Member of The Institution in

1884 and was also a member of the Royal Agricultural Society. He took a considerable interest in the affairs of the district in which he resided, being a member for many years of the Beaminster Board of Guardians and Chairman of the Evershot Parish Council from its formation in 1894.

JOHN WHITE, J.P. (Fellow), of Moore Hall, Warrington, was, at the time of his death in August, 1909, Chairman of the Counties Palatine Committee. He became a partner in 1860 in his father's firm, known at that time as Henry White and Son, but since changed to John White and Co., who are agents to Sir Gilbert Greenall, Colonel Ireland-Blackburne, Mr. T. H. Lyon, Admiral Parry, Mr. St. John Vigor Fox, and others.

Mr. White, who became a Member of The Institution in 1882, was one of the first representatives of the Borough of Warrington on the Lancashire County Council.

He was appointed Borough Magistrate in 1879, a Magistrate for Lancashire in 1891, and for Cheshire in 1896.

One of the outstanding features of his public life was his forty-two years' connection with the Royal Lancashire Agricultural Society, of which he was Chairman of the Council for ten years, being made an honorary life Vice-President six years ago.

He showed the greatest interest in Church work, and was on the Building Committee of Liverpool Cathedral.

HORACE MARTIN WILKIN (Fellow), whose death occurred in April, 1910, was head of the well-known Kings Lynn firm of Messrs. Cruso and Wilkin.

In 1883 he became a partner in the business founded

at the beginning of the last century by Mr. Charles Cruso, and since the death of Mr. Robinson Cruso, who succeeded the founder, had carried on the business himself, with the assistance of his son during the last fifteen years.

He was President of the Tenant-Right Valuers' Association, a member of the Wisbech District Valuers' Association, and agent for several estates in Norfolk. His connection with The Institution had lasted since 1891.

His Honour Judge SHIRESS WILL, K.C. (Honorary Member), who became an Associate of The Institution in 1876, was a native of Forfarshire, and entering the Middle Temple was called to the Bar in 1864.

He practised for a number of years at the Parliamentary Bar, retiring in 1885 on his being returned to Parliament in the Liberal interest as member for the Montrose District Burghs. He easily retained the seat at the succeeding elections in 1886, 1892, and 1895, but in the same year accepted the Chiltern Hundreds to make way for Mr. Morley, now Lord Morley of Blackburn, who had been defeated at Newcastle-on-Tyne.

Mr. Shiress Will resumed his practice at the Bar, being regarded as an authority on arbitrations and contracts, and was retained in a number of important cases under the Land Clauses Consolidation Act and rating appeals.

In 1906 he was appointed to the County Court Bench, and was then elected an Honorary Member of The Institution.

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DONATIONS OF BOOKS, MAPS, &c.,

1st June, 1909, *to* 31*st May*, 1910.

Donors.	Title of Work.
Accountant, Editor of the...	"The Accountant," 1909-1910.
Adkin, B.	Adkin, B., "Landlord and Tenant." 2nd edition, 1909. Adkin, B., "Parochial Assessment." 1909.
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THE LAND TAXES OF THE FINANCE ACT, 1909-1910.

By HOWARD MARTIN, Past-President.

A Paper read at a Special Meeting of Metropolitan Members, held on Wednesday, 15th June, 1910.

Leslie Robert Vigers (President) in the Chair.

I have been asked by the President to open a discussion on the land taxes of the Finance Act of 1910, and while I am willing to do so, I cannot pretend to give an accurate and detailed account of all the provisions of the part of the Act in question; all I can hope for is that the short account of its provisions which I propose to give, will serve as a peg on which many useful explanations and suggestions will be hung by the Members taking part in the discussion. As the valuable Notes on the Act prepared by Mr. Goddard will be in the hands of all the Members, I have thought it convenient to follow the order of those Notes.

I do not propose to touch at all on the probable effect of these taxes on the market for real property or on the prosperity of its owners; that question had already been discussed at great length in Parliament in the Press and elsewhere, before the Finance Bill became law, and the answer will soon be given by actual facts;

meanwhile, what concerns us at the present moment is to make ourselves acquainted with the provisions of the Act, and to prepare ourselves to deal with them when called upon to do so in our practice as surveyors. The complicated character of the Act makes this a somewhat difficult undertaking, but I think it will be found that much of the apparent difficulty disappears when the Act itself is carefully studied.

What are called the land taxes of the Finance Act are, as every one knows, the *Increment Value Duty*, *Reversion Duty*, and *Undeveloped Land Duty*.

Sec. 1. The *Increment Value Duty* is a tax of 20 per cent. on the difference between the site value of the land on the occasion on which increment value duty is to be paid and the original site value; 10 per cent. of the original site value, or of the site value on the last preceding occasion for the collection of increment duty, being deducted from that difference before the increment value duty is assessed.

Sec. 2. The occasions on which increment value duty is payable are (A) a sale of the fee simple of the land or of any interest in the land in pursuance of any contract made after the passing of the Act; (B) the granting of any lease for a term exceeding fourteen years in pursuance of any contract made after the passing of the Act; (C) the passing of property on the death of any person after the commencement of the Act; and (D) at fixed periods of fifteen years starting from 1914 in the case of land held by bodies corporate or incorporate in such a manner that the land is not liable to death duties.

Gross Value. Sec. 25 (1). 1. According to the Act four values of all land have to be ascertained, viz., 1st, what is called the *Gross Value* of the land if sold in the open market by a willing seller on the 30th April 1909, in its then con-

dition, free from incumbrances, or any burden, charge, or restriction (other than rates and taxes).

2. *The Full Site Value*, which is arrived at by deducting from the gross value the difference which would be caused in the price obtained if the land were divested of all buildings or other structures or machinery which may be on or in it, of all timber, and everything growing thereon. As I understand it, this does not mean deducting from the gross value the cost or value of buildings, &c., but imagining the land to be without all these things and valuing it in that condition. This effort of imagination is not, I take it, to be applied at once to the whole street or frontage in which a site to be valued may be situate, but only to each unit of the valuation separately. Full Site Value. Sec. 25 (2).

3. The *Total Value*, which is the gross value reduced by making proper allowance for fixed charges such as tithe rent-charge, &c., for any public rights or easements, and for any restrictions on the user of the land made before the 30th April 1909; or, if made after that date, which are in the opinion of the Commissioners desirable in the interests of the public, or in view of the character and surrounding of the neighbourhood. Total Value. Sec. 25 (3).

4. The *Assessable Site Value* (called when it is finally settled the original site value), which is to be ascertained by deducting from the total value the amount that was deducted from the gross value to ascertain the full site value; and also any part of the total value *directly attributable* to capital expenditure on works or otherwise by or in the interest of any person interested in the land for the improvement of the land as building land or for the purpose of any business trade or industry other than agriculture; also any value due to the appropriation or gift of any land by the landowner for streets, roads, open space, &c., for the use of the public; also any Assessable Site Value. Sec. 25 (4).

value directly attributable to the redemption of land tax or any fixed charges, the enfranchisement of copyhold, &c., or to the release of any restriction, or to goodwill or to any other matter which is personal to the owner or occupier; and also any expenditure necessary in order to divest the land of buildings, timber, &c., and any other things of which the land is supposed to be divested in arriving at full site value from the gross value, and of which it would be necessary to divest the land for the purpose of obtaining the full site value.

This has sometimes been supposed to mean that the valuer is entitled to deduct the cost of clearing away buildings, &c., on the site in all cases; but I think this is not so, and that the allowance is only to be made in cases where the site is applied to some purpose for which it is not most valuable, and must therefore be cleared before it could be turned to full account; that is to say, where it would be necessary to spend money or allow for the spending of money before the site could be disposed of in the ordinary way at its full price.

The allowance of a deduction for any value attributable to goodwill is a reasonable provision and requires no explanation.

Sec. 2 (3). If it can be proved that the site value of any land, on the occasion of its transfer at any time within twenty years before 30th April 1909, exceeded the original site value ascertained under this Act, the site value as shown by the actual transfer is to be substituted for the original site value so ascertained; so that the amount of the increment tax may not be increased by a fall in value which can be proved to have taken place within twenty years preceding the passing of the Act.

Sec. 2 (2). When increment value duty becomes payable the site

value is to be the value of the consideration for the transfer or the grant of a lease in the case of a sale or letting; and in the case of death the value as ascertained for death duty under the Finance Act of 1894; and in the case of periodical valuations of land held by bodies corporate or incorporate and not liable to death duty, the total value on that occasion ascertained as provided by Section 25 (3) of the Finance Act, 1910; and in each case the value is to be subject to the deductions provided in Section 25 for the purpose of arriving at site value from total value. But if any deduction that might have been made is not claimed before the provisional value has become the original site value, the deduction cannot be claimed afterwards when the increment duty is assessed. Sec. 12.

Section 2, Subsection (2) (c), which deals with the valuation of land for the assessment of increment value duty on the occasion of the lands passing on the death of any person, does not appear to be very clear. The fee simple to be valued under the Finance Act is defined in the Act to be the land free of leases, and that is the basis of the valuation of original site value; but valuations under the Finance Act of 1894 (which is to be the mode of valuation for increment value duty on property passing at death) are to be made subject to leases. It cannot, however, of course be intended that different bases of valuation should be adopted for the necessary comparison, and no doubt it is meant that the land is to be regarded free of leases in both cases.

On any sale or lease for a term exceeding fourteen years, the vendor or lessor must present to the Commissioners the instrument by which the transfer or lease is effected or agreed to be effected, in order that it may be stamped either with a stamp denoting that the increment Sec. 4 (2).

duty has been assessed and paid, or that security has been given for its payment, or else that no increment duty is chargeable.

The regulations made by the Commissioners require that a copy of the contract conveyance or lease, and of the plan attached, should be deposited at Somerset House or at branch offices appointed for the purpose; or that an abstract on the form provided by the Commissioners with a plan, should be deposited. But the form of abstract is so elaborate, that in most cases it would be less trouble and expense to deposit a full copy of the instrument and plan than to fill up the form.

In many cases (such, for instance, as selling or letting a building estate in small plots) the trouble expense and delay caused by depositing every contract or agreement will become a serious addition to the burden of the increment tax; and it appears probable that after every auction sale of real property all the contracts will have to be presented to the Commissioners and copies with plans left with them.

Exemption from Increment Value Duty. Sec. 7, *et seq.*

Increment duty is not to be paid on land used for agriculture, unless the land has a higher value than its market value for agricultural purposes only; nor on the sites of dwelling-houses in the occupation of their owners on the occasion when the duty is to be collected and for twelve months previously, provided the annual value of the house as assessed for income tax under Schedule A does not exceed £40 in the county of London, £26 in boroughs or urban districts with a population exceeding 50,000, and elsewhere £16; nor on agricultural land, for twelve months previously and at the time of the occasion for the tax in the occupation of and cultivated by the owner, provided that he does not own altogether more than fifty acres of land and its

average total value does not exceed £75 per acre, and that any dwelling-house occupied with the land does not exceed £30 in annual value.

Periodical increment duty will not be collected on any land kept open without any profit to the owner for the purpose of games or recreation, provided it can be shown that it is probable that the land will continue to be so used.

Increment duty is not to be collected on Crown lands, nor on the the transfer or lease, &c., of one flat or tenement in a building containing several, nor on any land held by rating authorities, nor on land held and used for charitable purposes by the governing body of a charity, nor on land held by a statutory company for the purposes of their undertaking only. It appears to be intended that land belonging to a charity shall be subject to increment value duty if the land is let and the rents applied to the purposes of the charity, but not when it is actually held and used for the purposes of the charity itself.

In any case in which a capital sum has been paid to a local authority in respect of betterment of any land by local improvements, the amount so paid is to be deducted from the increment value of the land for the purpose of collection of increment value duty. Sec. 36.

As regards the whole question of increment duty, it should be borne in mind that unless it can be shown that a profit made on the re-sale or letting of a building is due to structural alterations or to other works done to the building itself, or to some special circumstance of the building considered apart from the site, the whole of the profit must be regarded as due to an increase in the value of the site, and would therefore be the basis of an assessment for increment duty, and that no allow-

ance, except the statutory allowance of 10 per cent. of the original site value, is to be made for expenses, whether of purchase or of re-sale.

I do not feel competent to deal with the question of increment value duty on minerals, except so far as to say that increment duty on minerals is to be payable annually, but that no increment duty is chargeable on minerals included in a mining lease or being worked by the proprietor on 30th April 1909, so long as the minerals continue to be included in the mining lease or to be so worked.

It appears to me, from Section 20 (5) and Section 22 (8), that increment value duty will not be payable on common clay, common brick clay, clay and earth or sand, chalk, limestone, or gravel, &c., as minerals. But it is important to put separate values on these things in the original valuation, as otherwise the whole of any future value that may arise on account of them will be subject to increment value duty.

It will often be a matter of extreme difficulty when land has been purchased under compulsory powers, the purchase money having been fixed by the verdict of a jury and including compensation for consequential damage of various kinds, to determine accurately what part of the purchase money is to be considered as the consideration for the transfer, for the purpose of the assessment of increment value duty. Moreover, the settlement of cases of that kind will be very much complicated by the valuations under the Act if they are to be open to public inspection.

Sec. 3 (5). On each collection of increment duty the increment value shall be reduced by 10 per cent. of the original site value of the land on the first occasion, and on every subsequent occasion by 10 per cent. of the site value

fixed on the last occasion of the collection of increment duty, provided that the total remissions during any period of five years are not to be made on increment value exceeding 25 per cent. of the original site value, or of the site value on the occasion of the last collection of increment value duty.

Reversion Duty. Sec. 13.

Reversion Duty is a duty of 10 per cent. of the value of the benefit accruing to the lessor by reason of the determination of a lease, and the value of the benefit is to be the difference between the *total value* (as defined in the previously mentioned valuation clauses of the Act) of the land at the time the lease determined, and the *total value* of the land at the time of the original grant of the lease. The total value of the land at the termination of the lease is subject to deduction of any part of the value which is attributable to works executed, or expenditure made, by the lessor during the term; and also of any compensation payable by the lessor at the termination of the lease; and the total value of the land at the time of the original grant is to include, not only the rent reserved and payments made in consideration of the grant, but the value of any covenant to erect buildings or expend any sums upon the property in cases where only a nominal rent has been reserved.

Where the reversioner is himself a lessee he is only to pay duty on the proportion of the benefit attached to his interest.

It is to be observed that the comparison is to be made between the *total values* of the land at the two periods, and that the rack-rental value of the buildings upon it at the determination of the lease will therefore enter into the calculations. It will therefore become a matter of great importance (and in some cases of great difficulty) to decide what was "a nominal

"rent" when the lease was granted, because it is only when the rent then reserved was "nominal" that the value of covenants by the lessee to erect buildings or incur other expenditure on the site is to be taken into account, although in every case of such a letting the ground rent originally fixed must of course have been reduced in proportion to the future expenditure required of the lessee. It is obvious that every builder taking a site on building lease would pay a ground rent less in proportion to the annual return required to repay him for putting up a building on the site, and that the value of the covenant to build is always taken into consideration in fixing the ground rent. If therefore no allowance is to be made on that account, except in cases where only a peppercorn rent is reserved, the assessment of the tax will often be unjust. It is, I think, undesirable to leave room for misunderstanding by using colloquial words like "nominal" and "realise" in Acts of Parliament.

Exemptions from Reversion Duty. Secs. 14, 35, *et seq.*

As in the case of increment duty, land held by rating authorities, or for charitable purposes, or by a statutory company for the purposes of its undertaking is exempt from reversion duty also land used for agricultural purposes at the time of the termination of the lease, or land held on lease for less than twenty-one years, or land purchased before the 30th April 1909, and when purchased held on lease with an unexpired term of less than forty years.

Sec. 14 (3).

If a lease is determined by agreement before the expiration of the term, and a new lease is granted for a term extending for at least twenty-one years beyond the original date of the expiry of the lease, the Commissioners are to make an allowance of 2½ per cent. of the duty, for every year of the original term which is unexpired when the lease is determined, provided such

an allowance shall not exceed 50 per cent. of the whole duty. In order to obtain the full allowance of 50 per cent. of the duty on the renewal of a lease, it would be necessary therefore that the original lease should have at least twenty years unexpired, and be renewed for at least forty-one years.

It is also provided that increment value duty and reversion duty are not to be paid in respect of the same benefit. It appears possible to me that this provision would relieve a lessor from the payment of reversion duty on the expiration of a building lease, in respect of an increase in value on which a lessee or successive lessees had paid increment value duty during the term of the lease. If that is not so it is obvious that in some cases duty would be paid on the same increment both by the lessor and lessee.

Where a reversion has been mortgaged before the 30th April 1909, and the mortgagee has foreclosed before the reversion falls in, he will not be liable to pay reversion duty on more than the difference between the total value of the land when the reversion falls in and the sum due under his mortgage at the date of the foreclosure, a provision which will be a very valuable protection to mortgagees. Sec. 14 (5).

Every lessor is bound on the determination of a lease to give the particulars of the land to the Commissioners with an estimate of the value of the benefit accruing to the lessor by the termination of the lease.

The Undeveloped Land Duty is a tax of a halfpenny in the pound on the site value of all undeveloped land payable annually, undeveloped land being that which has not been used as the site of dwelling-houses, of buildings for any business trade or industry, other than agriculture but including glass-houses or green- Undeveloped Land Duty. Sec. 16.

houses, or is not otherwise used *bonâ fide* for any business trade or industry other than agriculture; but where land, after having been so used, ceases to be used for such business, &c., or when the buildings upon it become derelict, it will after a period of twelve months be regarded as undeveloped land and be subject to duty.

Where the owner of any land included in any scheme for land development has incurred expenditure on road-making or sewers, the land to the extent of one acre for every £100 of that expenditure shall be treated as developed land, but no expenditure incurred more than ten years previously will be taken into account; and where the expenditure does not cover the whole of the land included in the scheme, the Commissioners are to determine to what part of the land the expenditure is to be held to apply.

For the purposes of the undeveloped land duty, the value shall be the original site value or any site value that has been subsequently ascertained; but where increment value duty has been paid on increased value the site value is to be reduced by the amount of the increment (*i.e.*, five times the amount of the increment value duty) for the purpose of assessing undeveloped land duty. In this way owners are to be saved from paying undeveloped land duty on a part of the capital value which has already been paid over to the Government in taxation.

Undeveloped land for the purposes of the duty does not include minerals.

Exemptions from Undeveloped Land Duty. Sec. 17.

Undeveloped land duty is not to be charged in respect of any land of which the site value does not exceed £50 an acre. In the case of agricultural land, of which the site value exceeds £50 an acre, undeveloped land duty is only to be charged on the amount by

which the site value exceeds the value for agricultural purposes.

Undeveloped land duty is not to be charged on parks gardens or open spaces which are open to the public *as of right*, or on woodlands parks gardens &c. (including spaces used for training or exercise by the naval or military forces of the Crown), to which the public have reasonable access, if, in the opinion of the Commissioners, that access is of public benefit, nor on land kept free of buildings in pursuance of any definite scheme of development, where, in the opinion of the Commissioners, it is reasonably necessary that the land should be so kept free; nor on land *bonâ fide* agreed to be used for the purposes of games or other recreations for five years to come, or with a reasonable probability that the land will continue to be so used. But when land has received exemption on account of its being kept free from buildings it cannot hereafter be built upon without the consent of the Local Government Board, and (if the consent be obtained) subject to such conditions as to the mode of building which the Board may impose. It might well be therefore that in some such cases it would be better to pay the undeveloped land duty than to claim exemption subject to a subsequent permanent restriction as to building.

Undeveloped land duty is not to be charged on any land not exceeding one acre in area occupied with a house; nor on the grounds of a dwelling-house up to five acres in extent when the site value of the grounds and of the house together do not exceed twenty times the annual value of the whole premises assessed for income tax under Schedule A.

Land held under an agricultural lease granted before April 1909, is to be exempt, and agricultural land

occupied and cultivated by the owner (the total value of whose land does not exceed £500) is also exempt. As in the cases of the other land taxes, land held by rating authorities, for charitable purposes, and by a statutory company for the purpose of its undertaking, are exempt.

There appears to be no provision in the Act for the apportionment of annual payments charged over a whole estate among the units into which it will be divided for valuation for the purposes of the Act; or for charging the whole of very small annual payments so charged to one unit; and I suppose it is intended to make arbitrary apportionments (which will be binding on no one in future dealings with the land) for the purpose of these valuations. This however seems very undesirable because the result would be in many cases that the valuations so made would in time come to be very wide of the actual values.

Appeals. Sec. 33.

The Act gives a right of appeal against the first or any subsequent assessment of the total value or site value of any land, or against the amount of any assessment for duty, or as to allowances to be made, or against any determination of any other matter which the Commissioners can determine under Part I. of the Act, excepting those questions left to the decision of the Commissioners as to exemptions from undeveloped land duty in Section 17. But no person will be entitled to appeal against a provisional valuation unless he has previously objected to it, and appeals against the valuation of original and total site values will not be allowed to be made when the assessment of duty is appealed against.

Appeals are to be made to one of a panel of referees appointed under the Act by the reference committee viz., the Lord Chief Justice, the Master of the Rolls, and the President of The Surveyors' Institution; and any-

one aggrieved by the decision of the referee may appeal against his decision to the High Court; or if the total or site value appealed against does not exceed £500 the appeal may be made to the County Court.

All owners of land and persons receiving rent in respect of land are, on being required by notice to do so, to furnish to the Commissioners a return as to the rent received and various other particulars required for the valuation of the land. The owner may if he thinks fit accompany the return with a valuation made on his own behalf. Sec. 26.

The Commissioners are to serve a copy of their provisional valuation on every owner who may give notice of objection within sixty days, and if no such objection is taken the original total value and the original site value shown in the provisional valuation are to be adopted. Sec. 27.

It appears to me that it would be wise in all cases to give full particulars for the guidance of the Commissioners in making provisional valuations, but that in most cases it would not be desirable for landowners to accompany the particulars with valuations made on their own behalf. Most of the work involved in making the valuations will be done when the particulars which will be asked for by the Commissioners are supplied to them, and when the provisional valuations are made it will probably be found that in many cases it is possible to accept them.

I think, however, that the information on which the provisional valuations are based should be as full and as accurate as possible. The original total and the original site values having once been fixed are intended to attach to the property for ever, and may be referred to in the future for many purposes; there will be no future possibility of correction or of adjustment of any errors or omissions, and it is absolutely impossible to foresee

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what may be the effect hereafter of anything wrong in the valuations at the outset.

It is extremely probable that the valuations will be referred to for the assessment of death duties and for other assessments; and although at present the increment value duty appears to be the most onerous tax, and it might therefore be supposed advantageous to fix the values as high as possible, it is on the other hand an open secret that the originators of these taxes look to the undeveloped land duty as a tax which will be capable of future increase to meet future needs, and to avoid danger on that account it would be to the owner's advantage to keep the value as low as possible. Anyone who takes upon himself the responsibility of suffering a valuation to be made on insufficient or incorrect information, or secures its being higher or lower than it ought to be for the sake of some apparent immediate advantage, will subject the owner to a very serious risk of future loss and trouble, the extent of which it is impossible to predict.

It appears to me that the valuations will have to be made on the merits of each case, and that no rule of thumb as to deductions or otherwise will be of much service. It has been said that it is impossible to make the valuations required with accuracy because in many cases the amounts will be merely a matter of opinion; but it is the business of a properly qualified surveyor to form accurate opinions, and I see no reason why in most cases it should be more difficult to do so in order to arrive at the original site values under this Act than for many other purposes for which surveyors have to make valuations; for instance, in order to advise as to the value of an urban site after the house which once stood upon it had been burnt down and the materials removed.

BIBL. LONDIN. UNIV.